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ABSTRACT

Approaches to improving students' skills in reading social studies materials are presented in this book. The first chapter discusses reading problems and orientations to reading in the social studies. The remaining three chapters deal with three problem areas: making a suitable match between pupil reading abilities and instructional materials, providing motivation to read in social studies classes, and improving comprehension in the reading of social studies material. Within each problem area, selected strategies, procedures, and resources suitable to different grade levels are identified and described, and where appropriate, detailed activities are suggested. The appendixes review relevant research, describe methods for assessing readability of a text, discuss the use of personal classroom journals in the social studies, present an example of a discovery episode that may be used in social studies instruction, and show how to apply Hugh Rank's "doublespeak" schema to the social studies. An annotated bibliography of related items is included. (GW)

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Teaching Reading in the Social Studies

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Foreword

The Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) is a national information system developed by the U.S. Office of Education and now sponsored by the National Institute of Education (NIE). It provides ready access to descriptions of exemplary programs, research and development efforts, and related information useful in developing more effective educational programs.

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ERIC/RCS, the ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills, disseminates educational information related to research, instruction, and personnel preparation at all levels and in all institutions. The scope of interest of the Clearinghouse includes relevant research reports, literature reviews, curriculum guides and descriptions, conference papers, project or program reviews, and other print materials related to all aspects of reading, English, educational journalism, and speech communication.

The ERIC system has already made available through the ERIC Document Reproduction System—much informative data. However, if the findings of specific educational research are to be intelligible to teachers and applicable to teaching, considerable bodies of data must be reevaluated, focused, translated, and molded into an essentially different context. Rather than resting at the point of making research reports readily accessible, NIE has directed the separate clearinghouses to work with professional organizations in developing information analysis papers in specific areas within the scope of the clearinghouses.

ERIC/RCS is pleased to cooperate with the International Reading Association, the ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, and the Social Science Education Consortium, Inc. in making *Teaching Reading in the Social Studies* available.

Bernard O'Donnell
Director, ERIC/RCS

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The Problem: Dimensions and Approaches

In recent years, widely publicized accounts of the decline of scores on standardized tests measuring the basic reading skills of college-bound students and accompanying expressions of concern by educators and government officials have contributed to a growing feeling of anxiety and frustration among teachers and school administrators. Although some investigators (Farr, Tuinman, and Rowls 1974) are unable to find sufficient reliable data in the form of longitudinal studies to justify the present belief in a marked decline in reading skills, state legislatures and boards of education are increasing teacher certification requirements in reading (Bader 1975).

Indeed, public concern, reflected in action by these state agencies, is reinforced by recent criticism of the optimistic reports from the 1974-1975 reading assessment studies by the National Assessment of Educational Progress. Except in the case of nine-year-old black students, Neill (1976) could find little evidence to back up published NAEP claims of "dramatic and significant" improvement. In fact, a slight decline in reference skills was noted among thirteen-year-olds, and virtually no change was apparent in literal and inferential comprehension for this group.

Notwithstanding the absence of carefully designed empirical studies of reading behavior, there is still sufficient reason to warrant concern, particularly in the social studies. In three states, studies have revealed large numbers of high school students reading at least one or more years below grade level (Artley 1968; Karlin 1969). Karlin has estimated that 25 percent of high school students lack the ability to read materials with the comprehension required of them. This conclusion is supported by a more recent study (Campbell 1972) of the reading ability of fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-grade students and their ability to comprehend social studies texts. In a relatively representative school system, Campbell found that one-fifth of all students failed to comprehend their social studies textbooks, in spite of the fact that a reading improvement project had been in progress for two years and the readability levels of the texts were at or below grade levels. (Finding social studies texts at or below grade level is relatively unusual—a factor brought out later.)

Factors Affecting Reading Problems in Social Studies

The issue of inadequate reading skills in the social studies is inescapable. At least four major factors have contributed to the present problem:

1. Inadequate attention in classes to reading/study skills (Herman 1969; Olson 1970; Arnold and Sherry 1975).
2. Little or no formal preparation of teachers in dealing with reading problems in content areas (Roeder, Beal, and Eller 1973).
3. Unrealistic readability levels and limited comprehensibility of texts due to concept loading and related problems (Herman 1969; Johnson and Vardian 1973; Hash 1974).
4. Limitations on the reading performance of culturally and linguistically different children (Banks 1973; Wolf 1974).

Further reason for concern stems from the changing nature of social studies instruction. In the last decade, both elementary and secondary social studies have undergone a critical transition from a traditional program—grounded on narrative history, geography, and legalistic, descriptive treatments of government and civics—to a more advanced conceptual structure enriched with data and processes from the behaviorally oriented social sciences (Capron, Charles, and Kleiman 1973). New concepts, treating the nature of man, political decision making, and culture—to cite only a few examples—have been introduced into the elementary school program. What these developments mean, in essence, is that much more is required and expected of the pupil in terms of the ability to read and comprehend materials. At the same time, a number of organized groups of citizens and parents are becoming apprehensive about what they regard as the tendency of new programs to indoctrinate their children with alien values and ideas (Hepburn 1974; Boffey 1975; Clark 1975). In view of these conditions, there is a danger that reports of reading problems with the "new social studies" materials will stimulate demands for a return to "the basics" and will discourage innovation.

A number of cases can be cited to illustrate this last point. Reference has been made in these citations only to the "West Virginia Textbook Controversy"; the plight of *Man: A Course of Study (MACOS)*, an elementary social studies program whose merits were even debated recently in congressional chambers; and the banning, by the Georgia State Textbook Commission, of a social studies text by Edwin Fenton. Morrissett (1975, p. 250) notes, as the result of a recent study of social studies teachers' perceptions of their freedom to discuss controversial issues, "a probable decrease in educators' optimism about the climate for innovation in the nation."

Research Concerning Reading in the Social Studies

To respond effectively to this growing concern, social studies teachers must be prepared to demonstrate that they can make accurate judgments

about the reading skills of their pupils, adapt texts to varying levels of ability, and facilitate, through their choice of teaching strategies, the growth of reading comprehension. Informed decisions by teachers on how to cope with reading problems require some understanding of relevant research and insight into the reading process.

Admittedly, teachers have little time to plunge into exhaustive analyses of research literature, but to exclude research from a knowledge base in classroom decision making would be counterproductive to effective teaching. Therefore, the authors have included a brief summary of major trends and findings related to the question of reading in the social studies and, in addition, have provided a more complete analytical review of related research in Appendix A.

An examination of relevant, selected research findings suggests several things. First, there is a growing concern about the problems of readability and concept loading in social studies materials, and procedures have been identified (such as concept attainment strategies) to improve the comprehensibility of materials. Emphasis on the study of controversy and the use of value clarification is warranted as a means of demonstrating the relevance of the reading task and facilitating comprehension. There is evidence of mounting awareness of the importance of affective influences (self-concept, teacher expectation of pupil behavior, and so on) in proficient reading, and appropriate instructional strategies have been identified to improve the classroom climate. Finally, dissatisfaction is evidenced in the conventional approach to critical reading (identifying propaganda techniques) and promising proposals have been made to apply a new model (called "doublespeak") which focuses on the intensification and downplaying of language in the effort to manipulate behavior.

Conceptions of the Reading Process and the Utilization of Research

To make effective use of research on reading—particularly research focused on an instructional area—it is important to realize that specialists' conceptions of the reading process do indeed vary and that these different ways of looking at reading are not simply fuel for academic debate. They have real meaning for the classroom practitioner. Different conceptions, based upon different assumptions about the learning process and the selection of content, carry different implications for practice. Unless teachers understand this, they may be confused or misled by the claims of publishers or by the promises of zealous pressure groups. The presence of competing conceptions does not indicate an absence of reliable knowledge; rather, it suggests a process of critical testing and clarification of existing knowledge about a complex field and a persistent search for new knowledge. To introduce social studies teachers to these considerations, a brief description follows concerning three influential conceptions of the reading process. Although not intended as a

comprehensive commentary, this discussion should illustrate the broad spectrum of views. (The Bibliography and References include suggestions for further investigation of theories of reading.)

Reading as decoding. For some, the major emphasis in reading should be on "decoding." This means developing skill in the use of letter/sound relationships or acquiring the ability to apply rules regarding grapheme/phoneme relationships (Durkin 1972, p. 13).* Walcutt's three-part conception of reading provides an example of this emphasis (1967, pp. 263-65). "Reading," he observes, "is decoding the printed visual symbol into a spoken sound which it designates." Yet reading is also "understanding language," the goal that immediately follows the decoding. The final stage of reading is difficult to define, as Walcutt admits. It is seen as a movement into the "world of art and intellect," representing a "literary style" that is removed from spoken language.

Some writers are willing to concede that mature adult readers may not be required to carry out decoding operations, but they also argue that beginning readers have no alternative but to master "up to 211 distinct letter/sound correspondences, 166 rules (60 of which relate to consonants), 45 exceptions to rules (which are rules in themselves) and 69 spelling pattern rules" (Mazurkiewicz 1976, p. 4).

Reading as a comprehensive skills process. The Gray-Robinson model, first proposed by William S. Gray (1960) and later modified by Helen Robinson (1966), is an eclectic, skills-oriented conception of the reading process. Four major aspects of reading have been identified for emphasis: (1) word perception or recognition, (2) comprehension (including both literal and implied meanings), (3) "reaction to and evaluation of ideas expressed" (involving some elements of critical reading), and (4) "assimilation" of what is read through the combining of "old ideas" with information derived from reading (Clymer 1968, p. 23). Robinson has added speed or rate of reading to the model and emphasized that the idea of rate must be flexible, that is, related to the reader's purpose and the nature of the material. This conception recognizes the interrelatedness of certain aspects of reading while at the same time stresses distinct, identifiable basic skills (including decoding). Thus, it provides a reasonable middle position between those who see reading as a unitary process, not amenable to analysis, and those who perceive reading as a progression of independent, measurable skills (Clymer 1968, p. 27).

Reading as a psycholinguistic guessing game. The effort to relate psychological research on the nature of cognition and meaning to linguistic findings concerning the structure of language has led to the emergence of a new and influential discipline called psycholinguistics (Deese 1970). One group of

*A phoneme is viewed as a basic unit of a spoken language while a grapheme is seen as a basic unit of written language.

scholars in that field, Kenneth Goodman and his associates, offers a unique view of the reading process. "The purpose of reading," explains Goodman, "is the reconstruction of meaning" (Goodman and Niles 1970, p. 5). It is not a precise process of letter identification or word recognition, but it involves, instead, the selection of the fewest, most productive language cues on the basis of which meaning can be

> predicted, confirmed, or corrected as more information is acquired. Hence, reading may be described in simple terms as a "psycholinguistic guessing game" involving interaction between language and thought (Goodman 1970, p. 260). Goodman rejects the emphases of both phonics and word-recognition approaches, which he describes as a "preoccupation with letters and words" unsupported by new knowledge on how the reader "reconstructs meaning from written language" (Smith, Goodman, and Meredith 1970, p. 248).

Orientations to Reading in the Social Studies

What the basic orientation in reading instruction in the social studies should be is a much debated topic. Before dealing with the basic question of what can be done to improve the reading skills of social studies students, it may be useful to examine the basic patterns of alternatives for organizing reading instruction in this content area. These patterns may be described as: (1) skills-centered, or direct, instruction, (2) reading instruction in a reading class, and (3) content-centered, or functional, instruction (Herber 1972, pp. 192-94).

Skills-centered, or direct, approach. The skills-centered approach emphasizes the teaching of skills in reading as a separate activity, apart from instruction in the content of a specific course in history, geography, or the like. The skills that form the content of the program are related to the comprehension of social studies content, including, for example, acquiring map and globe skills, finding the main idea in a paragraph, and discriminating between fact and opinion. A unique feature of this pattern is that it may occur in a social studies class under the supervision of a social studies teacher. On occasion, a reading specialist may assume responsibility for a class, as in one seventh-grade social studies class composed largely of pupils with reading disabilities. In this example, a "language experience" approach was used in a course in which pupils wrote their own books, prepared their own map games, and developed question-and-answer booklets (Frankel 1974).

Reading instruction in a reading class. Artley (1968, pp. 85-98) and Herber (1972, pp. 192-93) have identified the special reading class, devoted primarily to the development of broadly defined reading skills and taught by a reading specialist, as another basic pattern. In this pattern—which is more characteristic of junior high or middle school—the teacher may use social studies

materials along with samples of other content in order to assess, develop, and give practice in specific skills. Learning the content, however, is not an end in itself. The reading specialist in this situation utilizes a variety of resources, such as materials on the use of context aids in word recognition, basic assessment procedures, and skill development booklets spanning various content areas (as exemplified by the materials prepared by Clymer [1972] and N. B. Smith [1968]).

Content-centered, or functional, approach. The content-centered approach, as the term implies, refers to the development of reading skills as they are needed in the teaching and learning processes of specific social studies courses. In this pattern, reading skills are an integral part of the social studies curriculum; they are not taught separately. While this pattern has attracted interest and support, it does not seem to have been widely implemented. Among the more influential proponents of this position are Harold Herber and some of his former students at Syracuse University. From their federally funded project have come thoughtful, research-based proposals for the use of structured overviews, three-levels study guides, and other strategies that can be incorporated into the process of teaching reading in content areas (Herber and Sanders 1969).

In the preparation of this book, the authors have subscribed, in large measure, to the content-centered orientation for dealing with reading problems in the social studies. This approach has the distinct advantage of respecting the teacher's commitment to a field of knowledge, while providing skills that can be useful for understanding the particular content being studied. But, in our judgment, this approach does not address the needs of the nonreaders or seriously disabled readers in social studies classes; hence, on this critical problem, we shall offer, in later chapters, a range of alternative strategies that go beyond the content-centered approach. Moreover, we are reluctant to press for adherence to any one approach; we recognize the present, limited state of knowledge about the relative merits of the various approaches to teaching reading skills in the social studies and are aware of the diverse classroom settings in which social studies teachers struggle with reading problems.

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Matching Student Abilities and Resources

Overview of Chapters 2, 3, and 4

There are three basic problem areas in which decisions by social studies teachers at all grade levels will substantially affect the ability of their students to read and derive meaning from instructional materials. These areas are by no means removed from the process of teaching social studies; they bear directly on the selection, organization, and presentation of content. The teacher who knows about, and is prepared to use, basic reading strategies and resources in making critical decisions in these areas can significantly enhance the learning of his or her students.

The problem areas are revealed by the following questions:

1. How can a suitable match be made between pupil reading abilities and instructional materials?
2. What can be done to provide motivation to read in social studies classes?
3. How can comprehension in the reading of social studies material be improved?

These three problem areas provide the framework for the next three chapters. Within each problem area, selected strategies, procedures, and resources suitable to different grade levels are identified and described. In addition, where appropriate, detailed illustrations or activities are presented.

Before proceeding with the description and discussion of classroom strategies, mention should be made of the widespread problem of allocating time between reading and subject-matter instruction. In recent years, reading has been given a great deal of emphasis, and some critics believe that reading is receiving the lion's share of instructional time in many elementary classrooms. In some cases, social studies instruction has been all but eliminated. How much time and effort should go into reading instruction during the social studies period is a decision that individual teachers must make on the basis of the situation confronting them at a particular time and place. The authors are not advocating that social studies learning be replaced by reading instruction, but they do believe that reading problems can, at times, be attacked effectively during social studies instruction.

The problem of time allocation also occurs at the junior and senior high levels. Classes are frequently in excess of 30 students, and teachers meet four to six classes a day, often working with as many as 180 students a day. Class periods are usually fifty minutes or less, so, with 30 students, there is little time to work with individuals. In addition, secondary teachers have three to five class preparations a day, leaving little or no time to do special kinds of preparation for small groups of students. It is little wonder that many secondary teachers take the position that if students do not know how to read when they reach the social studies classroom, it is not the social studies teacher's problem.

The authors believe that, in spite of the pressing demands on their time, elementary and secondary teachers can make contributions to student reading improvement at the same time they are teaching social studies. The strategies and techniques presented in this and the next two chapters are offered with the hope that they will help to lessen the burden of conflicting demands for both social studies and reading instruction.

Chapter 3 focuses on strategies and resources for improving motivation to read in social studies classes. Chapter 4 looks at ways to improve social studies reading comprehension. The present chapter considers the problem of matching student reading abilities with instructional materials of appropriate difficulty levels.

Assessing Difficulty of Materials

Readability formulas. Readability is a complex concept; it encompasses such factors as interest, motivation, attitude, and concept load or complexity in addition to such factors as length of sentences and words. Yet, the latter two factors have most readily provided the basis for formulas that yield generally reliable measures of text difficulty.

Two formulas, the Fry Readability Graph and SMOG (Simple Measure of Gobbledygook), are mentioned here. The Fry Graph is presented in Appendix B, while a brief description of the SMOG formula is included here. Both formulas have been substantiated by research, and they do not require much time or training to administer. (See Appendix A for a critical review of research.)

Using SMOG grading. McLaughlin (1969), author of the SMOG Grading Procedure, contends that his technique is "laughably simple" and "more valid than previous readability formulas." Still, one should be aware that scores from the Fry and SMOG methods may differ, though this fact does not impair the validity of either. The explanation lies in the criterion scores—the way readability is defined in terms of comprehension (Vaughan 1976). Usually, the SMOG score will tend to be higher than the Fry score, since SMOG assumes that readability is equivalent to 90 to 100 percent accuracy in a comprehension check, while the Fry Graph accepts the lower predictive criterion of 50

to 75 percent accuracy. If the materials the teacher plans to use are to be read primarily by students at home, the teacher would be well advised to use the SMOG technique, since it assumes that readability is equivalent to the ability to be read independently, without the aid of an instructor.

The directions for SMOG grading are as follows:

1. Near the beginning of an article or text to be appraised, count ten consecutive sentences; then count ten in the middle and ten near the end.
2. In the thirty sentences selected, every word of three or more syllables should be counted. Count each such word, even if it is repeated.
3. Determine the square root of the number of those polysyllabic words that have been counted. This is not as complicated as it may seem. McLaughlin (1969) suggests that this be done by taking the square root of the nearest perfect square. He explains that if the count is 95, the nearest perfect square is 100, which yields a square root of ten. If the count lies roughly between two perfect squares, choose the lower number. This means, for example, if a count of 110 is obtained, the square root of 100 should be taken.
4. Finally, the number three should be added to the estimated square root. This will provide the SMOG Grade, which is presumed to be an estimate of the reading grade level a student should have attained in order to fully comprehend the material.

The literature on readability formulas has increased significantly in the last few years, new formulas have been tested and proposed; popular older formulas, such as the Dale-Chall method (Dale and Chall 1948), have been simplified for purposes of scoring. For those who are interested in reading further on this topic, the Bibliography contains several references.

Predicting and Monitoring Student Reading Performance

Cloze and maze procedures. Now available to teachers are two procedures that will provide a useful estimate of the ability of a given class or group of students to read specific content at a functional level. One of these procedures, cloze, is also sensitive to concept load or idea complexity. Based on extensive research in reading and widely used by investigators in the last two decades, this method presents students with a passage of material not previously seen in which words have been systematically deleted. The student must then attempt to replace the deleted words (usually every fifth) according to the Bormuth procedure (Bormuth 1968). Concerning the deletion technique, it should probably be noted that Feely (1975) has recommended the deletion of every seventh word when cloze is applied to social studies content. Still, in view of the research base provided by Bormuth, the principle of

deleting every fifth word has been followed in this illustration. The percentage of words correctly replaced by the student indicates the extent of the match between the student's comprehension and the material.

Guidelines to follow in preparing a cloze inventory may be summarized as follows:

1. Select a representative passage, or passages, of material, usually about 250 words for the every-fifth-word deletion procedure.
2. Delete every fifth word in order to obtain fifty blanks. The blanks in the material presented to students should be of the same size. (If every seventh word is deleted, longer passages will be required to obtain fifty blanks.) Leave the beginning and ending sentences free of deletions.
3. Provide a key for correct answers and have the students score their own inventories, showing percentage of correct replacements. Set no time limits other than the limitations of the class period.
4. Assure the students that they are not to be graded on their performance on this exercise. Stress that the information will help in the selection of materials and planning of instruction. You may wish to explain that it is not possible to accept synonyms when using the cloze procedure for assessing readability of materials because of the difficulty in scoring them. (When cloze is used for instructional purposes, however, students should be encouraged to suggest synonyms.)
5. In scoring material written in a fairly easy narrative style, it is recommended that you use Bormuth's criteria, which may be summarized as:

   58-100 percent: independent level—the student can read without help.

   44-57 percent: instructional level—the student can read with help.

   0-43 percent: frustrational level—unsuitable for reading.

   However, if the material is basically expository, that is, containing explanations of concepts, it is suggested that you use the following as guidelines:

   54-100 percent: independent level

   39-54 percent: instructional level

   0-39 percent: frustrational level

   These latter scores should *not be treated as rigid cutoff points,* for they are based on the means of cloze scores derived from a number of cloze research studies by Feely (1975).

In this connection, it should be noted that, up to the present, most cloze research has been based on narrative reading materials (Cohen 1975). Still, if

you find that the median percentage score of your class falls below 39 percent on materials you had planned to use, you can safely predict that many will find it difficult to use the materials unless you revise them or introduce special corrective measures. Teachers who wish to take the time to restructure materials to facilitate comprehension will find suggested sources of help listed in the Bibliography. Some corrective measures are suggested in chapters 4 and 5. One simple measure would be to analyze the most frequently missed blanks to ascertain what concepts will cause difficulty and then provide clarification prior to giving an assignment. Teachers may also use the results of cloze tests to develop flexible grouping arrangements in class, to undertake various projects, or to provide differentiated assignments. Suggestions for coping with classroom organizational and management problems will be found at the end of chapter 4.

To illustrate the cloze procedure, let us assume a teacher wishes to find out if relatively simplified unit books in world history (such as those by Johnson et al. 1976) would be understood by a group of senior high students with reading problems. Presented in a somewhat abridged form, a cloze passage dealing with a narrative approach to African history, drawing on oral traditions, might look like this:

Cloze Inventory

"Sit down, please," the story teller said quietly. Two of the young _____ (1) were laughing at a _____ (2). The adults were trying _____ (3) get them quiet—with _____ (4) success. "The moon grows _____ (5) and full," the storyteller _____ (6). "My story is long. _____ (7) wish to start before the moon is too high."

The maze technique for assessing readability in terms of pupil performance on specific materials is similar to the cloze procedure. You may choose a deletion system of every fifth word or delete as few as every tenth word. However, a multiple-choice format is used. For each blank, three alternatives are presented to the student in random order: (1) the correct word, (2) an incorrect word of the same grammatical class (for example, verb, noun, preposition), and (3) an incorrect word of a different grammatical class. While cloze is easier to prepare, experience indicates that maze is less likely to cause appre-

hension, particularly among younger children. It is easier to select a correct word replacement from a multiple-choice item than it is to write a correct word in an empty space. Suggested maze readability cutoff points (Feely 1975) are 92 percent or greater: independent level; 80-91 percent: instructional level; 75 percent or less: frustrational level.

An alternative scoring system, based on Guthrie's research (1974), should be used if the material to be assessed is written in a fairly straightforward narrative style. This system indicates that an optimal instructional level may be found within the range of 60 to 70 percent. If the student reads at 50 percent accuracy or below, the material is too difficult; on the other hand, if a score above 90 percent is attained, the material is probably too easy.

Maze passages may be somewhat shorter than cloze passages, usually numbering 100 to 120 words, depending upon the deletion system. They should be selected from representative parts of a book or article not previously read by the students. The following maze exercise was derived from an upper elementary social studies text (Senesh 1973b, p. 159) with a readability level of grade five, according to the Fry Graph.

Maze Exercise: The Plantation System

For over 300 years, [farming / jumping / gone] was the most important [sound / way / no] of earning a living. [Swim / It / The] first farms in the [south / lake / last] were plantations along the [tidal / white / grind] rivers. A plantation is [up / a / those] large farm that produces [one / five / there] or two major crops. [None / Send / Some] plantations specialized in raising [fast / tobacco / cream]. Others specialized in rice, [indigo / fever / never], or cotton. They received [bigger / umbrellas / income] from the crops. Then [he / house / they] bought the goods they [needed / sold / time] from England. It was [strong / difficult / friendly] to run the plantations. [Workers / Children / Hardly] were scarce. It took [a / some / crop] lot of workers to [trail / brag / plant] and weed the big [snake / crops. / fall]

In the 1600s, many [poor / fire / sick] English colonists came to [Pen / Poland. They could / America] not pay [hardly / their / his] fare across the ocean.

Standardized tests as sources of information. On occasions, social studies teachers may wish to make use of the results of standardized reading tests in planning instruction. However, caution should be exercised, for standardized tests measure specific types of reading behavior which may not be closely related to reading skills required in social studies classes. Still, as Robinson (1975) suggests, standardized tests may be used to obtain tentative initial information about a class (provided the teacher is alert to the limitations of these tests and the hazards of categorizing students according to national norms).

Some survey tests, such as the Iowa Silent Reading Test, revised (Farr 1973), present useful information not only about vocabulary, but also about "directed reading," which measures pupil proficiency in the use of library resources and the dictionary and assesses ability to "skim and scan," or obtain information rapidly from encyclopedia-like articles. For critical reviews of specific reading tests, teachers should consult the appropriate section of the most recent editions of *Mental Measurements Yearbook* (Buros 1972). Other useful sources of information concerning the selection, uses and limitations of standardized tests are found in the Bibliography.

Developing inventories of skills. In some situations, neither commercial tests nor scores are readily available to social studies teachers, and it may be helpful for teachers to know other procedures for establishing the reading ability of their students. One procedure, the Group Informal Reading Inventory, is included in Appendix B for those who wish to assess students' specific skills. This is a rather comprehensive system, but several other quick, rough procedures are presented here that can also be of help.

Teacher-made test of student reading ability. This is a simple reading test that any teacher can devise. The steps for determining reading speed and comprehension with this procedure are the following:

1. Select a representative section from the class's text to be used as a directed reading exercise.
2. Count and indicate the cumulative number of words for each line up to 1,000 words.
3. Set the time limit for the exercise at ten minutes.
4. Duplicate and administer the directed reading exercise. As the exercise is being administered, say "Stop and check the line being read" at the end of three minutes and again at the end of six minutes.

5. Provide for exact timing, good motivation, and no interruptions during the administration of the test.
6. Prepare an objective test (including questions of both factual recall and interpretation) over the passage. Administer it promptly after the reading is finished. (Reading speed is determined by dividing the number of words read by the number of minutes given in step 4. Comprehension is thus determined.)

Since norms for reading rates tend to vary according to the nature of the content and type of comprehension check, no precise criteria are available to assess reading rate. However, a rough gauge may be obtained from analyses by Harris and Sipay (1975, p. 549) of median rates of reading on standardized tests. Compare the reading rates of your students (according to grade level) with the median rates shown in the following in words per minute:

Grade 2: 35 wpm	Grade 5: 145 wpm	Grade 8: 188 wpm
Grade 3: 75 wpm	Grade 6: 171 wpm	Grade 9: 199 wpm
Grade 4: 120 wpm	Grade 7: 176 wpm	Grade 12: 216 wpm

These guidelines are derived from standardized tests with the lowest medians. If a student's score falls substantially below these guidelines, you may assume that his or her reading rate is too low. It must be emphasized that reading rates may be affected by other reading skill deficiencies. Some students may be inefficient in language processing and read virtually all materials at the same rate (a characteristic of reading "inflexibility"). Provided that comprehension is not adversely affected, such students can benefit from instruction in how to accelerate and/or adapt reading speeds to different purposes and content. Further information on this topic will be given in the discussion on improving comprehension in chapter 4.

Quick group-screening surveys. For teachers who lack the time to prepare group reading inventories, alternatives may be found in various quick reading surveys (Harris and Sipay 1975, pp. 168-69). In the elementary school, teachers may use a combination of an oral reading survey and a silent reading comprehension check. Each child may be asked to read, out loud, three or four sentences of a given text, at sight. Then, children may be asked to silently read a short selection at the beginning of the book. As each pupil finishes, he or she should close the book and look up, thus making identification of the slowest readers possible. After all of the pupils have finished reading, the teacher may quiz the children by asking several short-answer questions. This procedure should accomplish two objectives. It should give a rough measure of the suitability of a particular book for a given group, and it should identify readers who need individual assessment and help.

Observation. Skilled and experienced teachers are often able to determine from observation of individual pupil reading behavior certain advantages and disadvantages in using a given set of materials. An observation checklist may be helpful in focusing attention on possible sources of reading difficulty. Sam-

mple checklists have been developed by Miller (1974, pp. 41-45) and may be reproduced for classroom use. However, Miller's checklists should be adapted to social studies content needs; this is not difficult and simply involves selecting those skills that appear most relevant to social studies, including, for example, acquiring sight vocabulary (recognition of specialized social studies terms), locating information in the text, and using reference aids in the library.

Graded word lists (sight words). Sight words or words contained in graded word lists are those that the pupil should be able to recognize at once. This assertion is based on the assumption that, to be a competent reader, a student must have a good stock of sight words. There are at least three ways a social studies teacher may use sight-word knowledge in individual assessment: (1) to approximate reading level according to standardized or clinically tested word lists, (2) to determine the suitability of a social studies text by assessing the ability of pupils to recognize words randomly chosen from the glossary, and (3) to ascertain the breadth of sight-word knowledge of social studies terms randomly selected from the glossaries of a graded series of textbooks.

Graded word lists are useful in obtaining a quick gauge of individual reading level, but they have some drawbacks. They place heavy emphasis on skill in phonic analysis. Thus, for example, a student may be able to "recognize" the word *government* by pronouncing it correctly when it appears on a list but may have no idea of its meaning. In addition, one cannot always be sure what criteria authors and publishers have used in "grading" texts and materials.

For teachers who wish to use a social studies sight-word knowledge assessment technique, the following directions are offered:

1. If you intend to relate pupil performance to grade level, select a text from a graded series; otherwise, your emphasis will be on determining the suitability of a given text.
2. Randomly select from the glossary or "dictionary" (as it is termed in some texts) every *n*th specialized vocabulary term until you have at least twenty-five.
3. Type the words on a sheet of paper and glue them to cardboard to facilitate frequent use. Make additional copies for use in marking words that the student fails to pronounce correctly.
4. It is suggested that you use Smith's criteria in interpreting the results. Smith recommends a standard of 80 to 95 percent accuracy for the desired instructional level (Miller 1974, p. 132).
5. If you are using the list to obtain an estimate of reading level, you should have a range of lists covering several grades to accommodate variations in pupil reading skills. Also, you should ask the student to start reading from a list that you feel will cause little

difficulty. The following examples (Senesh 1973a, 1973b) suggest, in an abridged form, what social studies graded word lists might look like:

Grade Three

apartment	factory	neighborhood
candidate	employee	pollution
court	expressway	price
business	government	recycle
city	housing	volunteer
customer	industrial park	profit
election	petition	suburb
expenses	housing project	vote

Grade Five

abolitionist	emigration	plantation
aerospace industry	extended family	proclamation
arid	factory system	referendum
capital	geologist	shareholder
ceremony	immigration	social capital
compromise	manufacturing	specialize
cultural region	natural gas	synthetic
drought	permafrost	tidewater

Junior High School

abolitionist	democratic	nomadic
alien	epidemic	patent
ambassador	excise	propaganda
campaign	export	provision
charter	independence	ration
combine	judicial	reason
constitution	missionary	tax
corporation	nationalism	technology

A number of graded word lists are available from publishers and professional journals. The Slosson Oral Reading Test (SORT) is popular with many reading teachers and provides reading grade scores from primary grades through high school (Slosson 1963). The San Diego Quick Assessment procedure, developed by LaPray and Ross (1969), covers preprimary through eleventh grade. Other information about the use of graded word lists in the social studies is contained in resources cited in the Bibliography.

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-3-

Improving Motivation to Read

The topic of motivation is admittedly complex; scholars have even designed theories of human behavior to account for motivation. However, the emphasis here is on classroom application of constructive and promising approaches. To this end, four basic principles are identified and practical procedures for implementing these principles are offered. Illustrations and descriptions are provided for selected student activities, diagnostic techniques, and teaching strategies.

Motivational Principles

The four motivational principles emphasized in this discussion may be summarized as follows:

1. Use materials and approaches that are responsive to and built on student interests.
2. Design and/or use strategies that demonstrate the relevance of the reading task in the social studies, focusing on the study and discussion of controversy and the clarification of values.
3. Help students who have negative attitudes toward reading in the social studies and little confidence in their ability to experience success in this area.
4. Encourage students to use language activities, such as role-playing games, and listening more effectively. Arouse curiosity about the communication process, of which reading is an integral part, and develop interpersonal communication skills.

Assessing Motivation

In dealing with the problem of motivation, there is no substitute for first-hand knowledge about students' interests, attitudes, values, and aspirations, based on informal observation and personal interaction. Still, valuable and essential insights can be obtained from interest inventories, structured interviews, attitude scales, and even the circulation records of school libraries.

Typical of the kinds of questions that may be asked in interest inventories are: Do you read a newspaper regularly? If so, what sections do you read? Other questions may be asked about preferences for school subjects, television programs, and hobbies. Some writers advocate the "incomplete-sentence" technique. The student is asked by the teacher to complete such statements as "When I read history (or government or geography), I _____", or "If I could read what I want, I would _____." Teachers may use published inventories, attitude scales, and incomplete-sentence tests or may create their own evaluation methods. (See the Bibliography for additional information.)

For teachers who wish to help individual students with reading problems, a structured interview may elicit valuable information not only about interests and attitudes but also about the student's perception of his or her own abilities. Unfortunately, many disabled readers are also afflicted with a negative self-concept, fed by constant exposure to frustrating encounters with the reading process. Recent research (Johns 1974) also suggests that the way a student views the reading process may be related to reading problems; hence, it is useful in interviews to inquire, casually, in an open-ended fashion, "What do you think reading is?" The response may often be illuminating, as indicated by an excerpt from "The Case of Tim Enfield," an actual interview reproduced later in this discussion.

A study by Tovey (1976) based on a psycholinguistic view of the reading process contends that we use a "word recognition equals reading" model in teaching reading. This theory implies that reading is a "word calling process." You might find it helpful to include some of the kinds of questions Tovey used in his study in your interview schedule:

1. When you are reading, do you focus on every word? (In the Tovey study, only five children, or 17 percent, indicated that they did not look at every word they read.)
2. If you focus on every word, do you think this is necessary? If you don't, do you think you should? (In the study, 53 percent of the pupils continued to believe that they should look at every word.)
3. Do you focus on every letter in every word while you read? (It was reported that 57 percent of the children believed that they did look at every letter.)
4. If you look at every letter, do you think that this is necessary? If you don't, should you? (Tovey revealed that 57 percent of the children indicated that they look at every letter.)

Building on Students' Interests

As previously suggested, the first step in improving motivation is to obtain information about the concerns, preferences, and perceptions of individual

students. This can be accomplished, of course, through survey-type instruments (interest inventories, attitude scales, and the like). Yet for more serious cases of reading problems, an individual assessment can be more productive; it need not be time consuming and sometimes can be carried out in planning or activity periods. The experience of one high school social studies teacher bears this out, as indicated in excerpts from a case study (Lunstrum 1975). The case illustrates what can be done by building on the interests of a student, considered by many to be a seriously disabled reader, to attack the problem of poor motivation.

The case of Tim Enfield. Tim, age sixteen, had somehow managed to get to the tenth grade, although all indications from test data suggested that he had a reading level of grade two. He was generally considered a discipline problem and viewed by some teachers as hopeless. When he appeared in his social studies class, he asked to be moved away from other students. Still, his teacher felt that Tim had some potential and set about the task of finding out more about him. The results of the interest inventory conducted are summarized below:

> Tim's interest in reading is quite limited (in school and out). In fact, he expresses an aversion to books. His reading at home seems to be confined to the *TV Guide* and magazines dealing with firearms. He is interested in hunting and fishing. He also has some interest in drawing, primarily cartoons. He has mentioned using topographical maps. Subjects liked least in school included English, math, and science. He has a motorcycle which he rides frequently after school. Preferences in music include country and western.

Tim's oral reading of social studies materials (even at fifth-grade readability level) was characterized by numerous "miscues"—omissions and substitutions. (The technique of miscue analysis is discussed later, in chapter 4.) Tim read reluctantly, under much tension, and showed anger and frustration on some occasions with a few whispered four-letter words.

In the excerpt which follows, the teacher begins by raising questions about Tim's interest in guns and his perceptions of reading:

Teacher: One of the things I wanted to ask you about in terms of your reading problem is how you managed to obtain all this information about guns. You probably didn't get it through a lot of reading.

Tim: No.

Teacher: Did you talk to a lot of people about it?

Tim: Yeah, I talked to a lot of people and jes herded it up . . . picked it up here and there and that's the way I got it.

Teacher: Would you tell me, what are some of the guns that you have in your collection?

Tim: I got Brownings, Remingtons, Mossburgs, Winchesters, Colts and a Kentucky muzzle loader pistol and uh, a little Russian-made derringer, both with black powder.

Teacher: You told me earlier you were interested in the uses of black powder and you were talking about the Kentucky rifle. You mentioned that in addition to the Kentucky rifle there was another rifle used on the Frontier . . .

Tim: Yeah, the Hawkins.

Teacher: The Hawkins? O.K. And what was the difference between the musket and these Frontier rifles?

Tim: Well, the Hawkins had a heavy barrel on it. Really, what that was good for was the Mountain Men . . . always kept getting knocked off their horses by trees 'n stuff and the stocks kept breaking off or they'd break a barrel or somethin'. And they had to have a gun heavy enough and sturdy enough to go out and knock down some of this North American big game like grizzly and moose 'n stuff. And the little forty-five caliber Kentucky flintlock wasn't heavy enough. And it was too long to nav . . . navigate through brush and that undergrowth, so they had to have a gun heavy enough and short enough to get the job done.

Teacher: O.K. Very interesting. Let's come back to your reading for a minute. What do you do when you come to words you don't know?

Tim: Try to figger it out, but mostly ask somebody.

Teacher: O.K. Tim, what do you think reading is?

Tim: Hunh? Well, I guess jes readin' words.

The preceding interview contained several surprises for Tim's teacher. First, Tim's speaking vocabulary was more extensive than his reading vocabulary. His use of the words "navigate," "derringer," "undergrowth," and so on underscored a verbal facility not previously observed in class. Secondly, a surprising factor was the depth of his knowledge about firearms, acquired through listening skill (later verified by a listening comprehension test which placed him at the level of grade eleven).

Far too many poor readers such as Tim have seemingly learned in school to view reading as simply a word recognition (or word calling) process. Later in the interview, other questions threw light on Tim's language processing skill. He was asked what he did when he came to a word he didn't know and replied that most of the time he would ask somebody; clearly, he did not know how to use context to obtain meaning. This was further confirmed by his response to the question, Do you look at every word when you read? Tim replied yes. (This question refers to an "average rate of reading"—not an intensive, precise speed.) When asked about his reading, Tim said despondently, "I got to more or less struggle. Most of my teachers think I'm dumb." He

traced his problems in reading back to second grade when, in Tim's words, "the teacher kept drillin' on all those rules about what sounds those letters make."

Tim's case reflects the classic problem of negative self-concept in reading. He had consistently experienced failure in reading; most teachers expected him to fail and, finally, his basic reading strategies were inefficient. The goal for his teacher was to find opportunities for Tim to use his interests and strengths to experience success. Specifically (with some help from a reading specialist), his teacher developed the following activities: Tim began to use his interest and skill in drawing to create cartoons of historical events and people and provided captions for those cartoons, which were then displayed in class. A modified "language experience" activity was created in which Tim dictated his interpretation of one of the historical cartoons. The interpretation was transcribed and presented to Tim in typewritten form as a reading activity. (The language experience approach is treated in more detail later in this chapter.) Arrangements were made for a volunteer tutor to assist Tim with improvement of basic reading skills (for example, expanding sight vocabulary, learning to use semantic and structural cues in reading, and so on). The content material chosen initially was, based on Tim's interests, on firearms and their relationship to history.

Resources that draw on a broad spectrum of interests include music, art, newspapers, and trade books. The possible applications of these resources to the teaching of reading skills in the social studies are suggested briefly in the following pages.

Music. Music has been found effective in the early elementary years in developing an oral vocabulary and in providing experience with a common phrase structure and syntax pattern. In elementary grades and junior high school, folksongs with historical settings or themes may be used to generate interest and, at the same time, introduce basic reading skills. In one case (Ritt 1974), the teacher used the folksong "I'm a Good Old Rebel" to encourage pupils to study lyrics. They then practiced placing words and sentences in a logical arrangement in the song; they also evaluated the rebel's motives and attitudes toward the federal government and looked for historical bases during Reconstruction for the reference in the lyrics to "lyin', thievin' Yankees."

In high school, teachers may use contemporary music and lyrics such as those found in Arlo Guthrie's "Motorcycle Song" to probe differing conceptions of values. Not only are contemporary themes reflected in popular music, but, as one author suggests, "a primary source for futuristic images within the youth culture may be found in the lyrics of popular songs" (Cooper 1975, p. 277). Using Cooper's suggestions, one might examine in United States history and government classes the theme of political power and the role of the individual in the future, as reflected in the music and lyrics of such songs

as Alice Cooper's "Elected," Tom T. Hall's "The Monkey That Became President," and Ray Stevens' "America, Communicate with Me." The use of music to evoke emotion, instill nationalistic pride, and develop a feeling of unity can be an interesting subject of study, and one that is directly related to historical movements. For substantiation of this claim, one need only point to the impact of "We Shall Overcome" on the civil rights movement and to the effects of some of the songs used by unions in their efforts to organize American workers.

Art. Art and art-related activities have also been used to improve motivation to read in the social studies. In the case study presented, Tim Enfield's teacher made use of his interest in drawing to encourage him to create original cartoons of historical problems and events. Tim also provided captions for his cartoons and discussed the interpretations with his classmates.

Creating color/line representations of concepts has been recommended by Simon, Hawley, and Britton (1973, pp. 145-47), who feel that the selection of colors and manipulation of materials "may deepen one's self-understanding as well as one's understanding of the concept." After the process of creating such representations is explained, these writers propose that students do an exercise in which they depict "mother," "love," "sex," and "war." More appropriate to lower grades, however, may be the depiction of such themes as cooperation and competition. Teachers may choose to portray other words and concepts appropriate to the level of maturity of their pupils and the content of their courses. Another approach to the use of art in the social studies is exemplified in the use, by Massialas and Zevin (1970), of slides of paintings and art objects as "visual evidence" to encourage students to hypothesize about differing conceptions of warfare and to contrast two societies, Britain and China.

Newspapers. Newspapers are clearly a popular mass medium of information. Building on the tendency of many to turn to newspapers to satisfy needs for information, Berryman (1975) has developed modules that provide social studies teachers with numerous suggestions for using newspapers in their teaching. The modules—many of which are suitable for grades five through twelve—cover diverse topics, ranging from an analysis of grocery advertising (consumer economics) to an analysis of editorials (politics and government).

One particularly interesting module that might be useful with "reluctant" readers in social studies classes deals with the study of comic strips. The objectives stress that students be able to establish categories for classifying the strips and identify the values and social attitudes reflected in them. With assistance from the teacher, the students place the cartoons into appropriate categories (such as humor, adventure, satire). At the same time, they look for old stereotypes (for example, machismo) or new, emerging stereotypes (for example, the superwoman). The module could also be modified to include a

comparison of comic strips over several decades to illustrate the changing ways in which values and morals are reflected. This module, with the variations suggested, could conceivably be incorporated into the study of the emergence of the newspaper in American history—a topic usually treated in a dull, factual manner by textbooks on United States history.

Trade books. Other students may be motivated to read in the social studies class by becoming acquainted with the world of paperbacks. Through skillfully written biographies and historical fiction, paperbacks can translate what is dull and sterile in textbooks into vivid, meaningful spectacles of human drama. In the works of one versatile author, Stephen Meader (*Boy with a Pack* [1939], *Whaler Round the Horn* [1950], *Sparkplug of the Hornets* [1968]), may be found interesting junior novels that span two centuries of American history. Laura Ingalls Wilder (*Little House on the Prairie* [1953]) is another author whose fiction is noted for its realistic treatment of the West. Another rich and untapped resource is science fiction, with its vivid conceptions of alternative futures. Illustrative of what might be used to stimulate reading and discussion about the relationship between humans and their environment is "A Sound of Thunder" by Ray Bradbury (1971), one of the most capable writers in the field of science fiction. Finally, a valuable source of information for the teacher who wishes to interest the disadvantaged reader in fiction and biography is George Spache's *Good Reading for the Disadvantaged Reader: Multi-ethnic Resources* (1970). Spache is careful to select high-interest materials that are appropriate to various age levels but that are, at the same time, relatively easy to read. This is a consideration that all classroom teachers of social studies should bear in mind in selecting books. Using simple materials that appear "babyish" to students is likely to undermine, not further, interest in reading.

Using Inquiry into Controversial Issues and Value Clarification

The role of controversy in demonstrating the relevance of the reading task has been stressed by Shaver (1969). A bored, apathetic student can sometimes be stimulated when confronted with contradictory data that calls into question cherished—and usually unexamined—values. It follows, of course, that the emphasis is on an ethical, constructive approach to the examination of controversy in order to enable students to better cope with conflict. Some of the "new social studies" materials have incorporated systematic, informed approaches to the use of controversy. Examples include the application of behavioral data in *American Political Behavior* (Mehlinger and Patrick 1974) and the interdisciplinary, jurisprudential approach of Oliver and Newmann (1969-1970).

Using controversy: a springboard approach. It is encouraging to note that some publishers have departed from what was once called the "gray flannel

cover" format, which produced dull social studies books devoid of any serious treatment of controversial public issues. However, the fact remains that large numbers of textbooks, even today, are more intent on transmitting information than on developing skills for dealing with controversy. There is also the inevitable pressure to cover ground. Given these conditions, a social studies teacher may still make good use of the "springboard" strategy, proposed two decades ago by Hunt and Metcalf (1955, p. 361). "A teacher watches the textbook," explain the authors, "for appropriate descriptive passages or other collections of data or theoretical generalizations, or contradictions or discrepancies." The teacher's role then becomes one of promoting "discussion by asking questions which reveal inadequacy in students' beliefs."

One application of this approach might be to encourage students to carefully examine a statement in their own text similar to this summary statement in *Democracy and Communism* (Chabe 1973, p. 98): "Democracy and capitalism spread power among many individuals. This democratic 'spread of power' means happiness for more people more often." At this point, the teacher might introduce data on increasing voter apathy and political alienation in the United States and ask the students if they feel this is a reflection of "happiness" and "spread of power." Other provocative questions posed by the teacher, who assumes the role of a skillful challenger, might be: How successful were we in spreading happiness and power among the people of Viet Nam? and, How might this statement about the relationship between capitalism, democracy, and the spread of happiness be viewed by a Soviet youth, an Israeli youth, or an Arab youth?

Using controversy: a structured approach. Some teachers may prefer structured, inquiry-oriented activities when dealing with controversies. The following activity (adapted from Lunstrum and Schneider 1969) capitalizes on public interest in the mass media and conflicting views about the political role of television.

Studying the Political Role of Television

Objectives: 1. Students will prepare questionnaires that are free of bias to sample opinions on a controversial topic.
2. Students will collect data on the relative importance of the various mass media as sources of information.
3. Students will analyze and interpret the data derived from the survey.
4. In light of the data, the students will examine their own assumptions.

Grade levels: Five through twelve (with some modifications).

Procedures: To initiate the study, confront the students with a series of conflicting and controversial statements about television and ask them to analyze the propositions on the basis of their own conceptions of the medium. Note the growing political importance

of commercial television and explain that people often disagree about what medium of political information (newspaper, magazines, or television) is most reliable or trustworthy. Solicit student opinions and encourage clarification of conflicting views. Ask how they think others would feel and suggest that they might be able to throw more light on the issue by surveying opinions in the school or community. Questions that could be asked include:

a. How frequently do you watch television news broadcasts?
   Daily
   Frequently, but not necessarily daily
   Occasionally
   Rarely
   Never

b. How often do you read the news portion of a daily newspaper?
   Daily
   Frequently, but not daily
   Occasionally
   Rarely
   Never

c. How often do you read the news portion of a weekly news magazine such as *Time* or *Newsweek*?
   Weekly
   Frequently, but not every week
   Occasionally
   Rarely
   Never

d. How frequently do you listen to radio news broadcasts?
   Daily
   Frequently, but not daily
   Occasionally
   Rarely
   Never

e. What is the single most important source of news for you?
   Television
   Newspaper
   News magazine
   Radio
   Other (specify)

While the data derived from canvassing a particular class or group is useful, a multilevel survey will yield data for interesting comparative analysis. Suggested target samples are other classes,

grade-level groups, alternative grade levels, teachers, parents, and random samples of local residents. Some possible questions to pose in considering the data from multiple groups are:

a. Is television more or less important as a source of news information for young people (children or teenagers) in contrast to adults (teachers, parents, or group *x*)?
b. Which group uses the most sources of information?
c. Does television appear to have more impact on people, even though it is only one of the sources of news?
d. What general conclusions can you draw about the importance of television as a news medium for the groups surveyed?
e. What implications do your conclusions have for considering television as a political tool?

Value clarification. Value clarification procedures, particularly the approach taken by Raths, Harmin, and Simon (1966), have been significantly related to improvement of self-concept and reading comprehension by recent studies (Fitzpatrick 1975; Pracejus 1974). Since the model advocated by Raths et al. focuses primarily on interpersonal values, as distinguished from inquiry into public issues, it may indeed foster a sense of purpose in reading, for pupils attempt to make sense of the conflict that pervades private lives and the public scene. As examples of this approach, two activities may be cited as appropriate for elementary social studies classes (Simon 1971, pp. 902-05). One, Baker's Dozen, is described below.

Baker's Dozen

Objectives: 1. The pupils will recognize the personal priorities that influence their decisions.
2. The pupils will explain the reasons for their decisions.

Grade levels: Three through six.

Procedures: Request each student to list thirteen of his or her favorite appliances that require electricity. After all students have completed lists, instruct them to cross out three that they could get along without in the event of a critical power shortage. After this has been done, tell the students to circle the three items that are most important to them (for example, hair dryers, refrigerators, television) and to which they would cling at the very last moment. The most important outcome of this activity, in Simon's words, is "for each of us to know what we want and see it in perspective of what we like less" (Simon 1971, p. 904). Related activities might cover such topics as energy and conservation of natural resources.

A second value clarification activity, Personal Coat of Arms, is designed to help students better understand some of their most strongly held values and

to grasp the importance of publicly affirming their beliefs. The exercise is intriguing; it requires students to place stick figures representing various aspirations or beliefs in sections of a shield. (There is no emphasis on artistic skill.) In one section, the student is asked, for example, to draw two pictures—one showing something he or she does very well and one he or she would like to do very well. In another section, students are permitted to use four words to indicate what they would like to have people say about them "behind their backs."

Helping Students to Experience Success

This principle is, of course, related to the other three principles described. Still, it deserves separate emphasis, for, as explained in the analysis of research provided in Appendix A, some teachers unwittingly assign materials that are at a frustrational level to disabled readers. To maximize students' opportunities for success in reading, the teacher should carefully select instructional materials that are not only well written, objective, and accurate, but also comprehensible to the majority of students. As previously noted, this requires that the teacher make estimates of the readability level of texts and use cloze, maze, and other procedures to effect a suitable match between pupil ability and materials. In addition, the teacher should have some knowledge of alternative materials that can be used to help those pupils for whom the textbook is too difficult. This may mean using social studies skill development exercises such as those prepared by Herber (1973). These activities cover a range of skills and readability levels from grade two through eight.

Restructuring and individualizing materials. An option available to the social studies teacher when alternative resources at lower readability levels cannot be obtained is to restructure the text materials and provide individualized learning packages. In addition, "learning centers" or "learning stations" may be set up in both elementary and secondary classrooms. The centers usually contain self-directed, self-pacing exercises, games, and puzzles emphasizing such skills as how to read a map or graph, use a glossary, and find multiple meanings of social studies words. While this approach can be rewarding, it requires a substantial investment of the teacher's time. However, for those who wish to inquire further into this alternative, resources are provided in the Bibliography.

Modified language experience approach. An approach used by some teachers to teach developmental reading skills in the early years may be modified and used effectively in social studies classes. Called "language experience" activities, these exercises capitalize on the pupil's oral language facility; this in turn provides motivation because it demonstrates that what the pupil discusses is, first, significant enough to write about and, second, sufficiently important to read about (Laffey and Geary 1976, p. 82). Stated simply from the perspective of the student, language experience might be described in these terms (Van Allen 1976):

What I can think about,
I can talk about.
What I can say, I can write.
What I can write, I can read.
I can read what I write and
What other people can write
For me to read.

In the case study presented earlier, Tim Enfield—in a tenth-grade social studies class but reading at second-grade level—engaged in a language experience activity developed by his teacher. Tim studied the portrayal of the Boston Massacre in his textbook, the well-known scene engraved and printed by Paul Revere and used as propaganda to win colonials to the patriot cause. He listened to a brief taped explanation of what was happening. Tim then looked at an excerpt from a British secondary school text (Robinson 1969) and listened to a taped reading and explanation of the account that differed markedly from the version of the colonists and also differed in some respects from his text. He was then asked, Suppose you were a British cartoonist of that period. How do you think you would have shown this scene? Tim discussed with his teacher what possible differences might be shown between the American version and what a British artist would show. After several days, Tim produced a cartoon that clearly showed the colonists in aggressive positions, threatening a hapless British sentry who had no recourse but to summon help. Tim was then asked to place on audiotape, in his own unrehearsed words, what he was saying in his "British version" of the Boston Massacre. He dictated a brief account, which was then typed and given to him to read. To his surprise and pleasure (and that of his teacher) he read the passage without any hesitations, omissions, or substitutions. He sensed that the language experience story, which reflected his own oral pattern, did not conform to the grammatical structure used in texts and wanted to make some corrections to "say it better." Reproduced below is Tim's explanation of his sketch of the Boston Massacre:

> This is what happened at the Boston Massacre. This poor old soldier was standing up there guarding the plank so no unauthorized persons could get on board their boat and there was a whole pack of bullies that come up there and started making fun of him and kicking dirt on his shoes and getting his uniform all dirty. So the soldier ran for to get some help and these eight soldiers came up there with their guns and bayonets fixed more or less to frighten them away. But the bullies went and got help too. They got knives, pitchforks, snowballs and stood there throwing things at those guys. One of the Americans got a gun and fired. And the poor old British soldier thought somebody got killed on their side and they shot into the mess, too.

The basic procedures in adapting the language experience approach to social studies include the following steps: Ask the students to interpret, explain, or describe, in their own words, an event, problem, cartoon, or issue related to the social studies content being studied. The subject should be something meaningful to the student. Younger children might be asked, for example, to describe a field trip to a bank or how they felt playing the simulation game, Powderhorn. These unrehearsed accounts are then placed on audiotape. Then, ask the students to orally read their stories or accounts. Discussion follows between the teacher and student as to meaning and how the student might change the story to improve it. If this is used with a group, students might read their stories aloud and discuss them. If students are unable to read some of the words they dictated, these words should be marked and later, if time permits, a kinesthetic, tracing procedure can be used to develop sight recognition. (This procedure is explained more fully in chapter 4, under the topic of comprehension.)

A language experience also requires more time on the part of the teacher, but it can clearly be a valuable tool in providing many disabled readers with successful reading experiences. The teacher may also be able to secure some help in taping and transcribing stories from teacher aides, volunteers, typing classes, and even older students. Some teachers have taught entire social studies classes with language experience activities. (One interesting account of such an approach in a seventh-grade class is provided by Frankel [1974].)

Personal classroom journals. Another modification of the language experience approach is the use of personal classroom journals. Jesse H. Lott, a high school social studies teacher in Tallahassee, Florida, has effectively applied this strategy for a number of years with students of varying abilities. He provides the following explanation of his procedures (Lott 1977):

> Each student is asked to acquire a spiral bound notebook for use as a journal. Students use their journals (1) preparing for a class discussion, by reading over the springboard article, cartoon, part of the textbook, etc., and writing their responses; and (2) following a class discussion or event (e.g., field trip, guest lecture, etc.) by writing out their responses. The journal is, first, a way of communicating with self. More specifically, this means that the journal is: (1) an interpretation of daily class activities, (2) a series of questions about the daily class activities, (3) an opportunity to make comments on the daily class activities, (4) a way to express oneself through an "open letter" to others, and (5) a product of the student's personal growth. "I learn . . . "
>
> What goes in the journal? The working of the student's mind. From simple recall of information to flights of the student's imagination, from experimental growth in thought to the analysis of line drawings, plus these moments of *discovery* that lead to

creativity. All of these activities and more await the student's own unique expression.

The journals students keep in Lott's classes in world history bear little resemblance to the traditional, unloved student class notebooks. In this case, the instructor maintains his own journal, which his students may examine; he reads the journals, recording his comments and raising questions. Students show great interest, according to Lott, in what their classmates have had to say in their journals, and, on occasion, an opportunity is provided for students to read other journals (with the consent of the students concerned).

Students with reading and learning problems and those who are academically successful find in their journals a valuable medium of self-expression—once they recognize that their instructor is seeking to open a dialogue and can be trusted with their observations. When students reveal their personal concerns, Lott feels they are establishing what some theorists call a "key vocabulary." (Appendix C provides more specific information on procedures for maintaining journals and also includes excerpts from selected journals.)

Expanding the Use of Language Activities and Stressing Interpersonal Skills in Communication

In improving reading skills—or any kind of instructional program—the classroom climate must ensure that the student feels accepted and respected. This specifically means respect for the student's language patterns and culture. A related factor is what Meredith (Smith, Goodman, and Meredith 1970, pp. 11-12) believes is the universality of the human need to communicate. "The more opportunity the child has to communicate," he explains, "the more he will develop in the use of language and the more acceptable will be his language by adult standards. He needs to be spoken to, listened to, responded to." Another authority in the field of language learning has argued that students should use language far more than they ordinarily do in classrooms. He explains that the only way to encourage language experience and feedback is to "develop small group interaction into a sensitive learning method" (Moffett 1968, pp. 12-13). Unfortunately, notwithstanding such recommendations, it seems likely that in some classes students still spend an inordinate amount of time listening to teachers or to other students answering questions. There is, indeed, as Hoetker and Ahlbrand (1969) showed in their study, a remarkable persistence in the recitation mode of teaching.

Role playing and simulation. In many of the "new social studies" programs, teachers will find resources designed to encourage relevant, informed small group interaction and extensive language use. Even in the more traditional field of history, there have been significant developments. For example, in a new approach to world history developed at Indiana University, a number of carefully designed role-playing situations and simulation games have

been used. One particularly intriguing application of role playing engages the students in a vivid trial of Napoleon (Thompson et al. 1974, pp. 78-81). The trial is, of course, fictitious, but the issues raised in the trial are solidly based on history. From all reports, students play their roles vigorously, and sometimes heatedly, in this courtroom scene.

There is, of course, a wide and varied assortment of programs available. Among the games that might be cited as examples of those that promote thoughtful, productive forms of group interaction is James Coleman's *Game of Democracy*, in which students in grades eight through twelve negotiate and bargain in order to pass legislation in which their constituents are interested. In the elementary grades, other simulations focus on the decisions of consumers and even the problems of Appalachian miners.

Teachers need not limit themselves to games available from commercial sources. For children in the primary grades, the folktale may be combined with role playing and creative dramatic activity. For example, children can be introduced to the concept of cultural diffusion if they note how different versions of the same story or different interpretations of the trickster/hero are found in different cultures. Almost universal are animal tales, appearing in different forms in various countries (Carlson 1972). One popular character featured in many stories is Ananse the Spider; others are the tortoise and the turtle. Children may re-enact the stories with masks of paper bags or papier mache.

Interpersonal communication skills. To emphasize the skills required in effective listening behavior, an adaptation of a communication experiment, Rumor Clinic (Pfeiffer and Jones 1974, pp. 12-14), can be carried out.

Rumor Clinic

Objectives: 1. Students will be able to identify the distortions in the process of transmitting information from an original source, through several persons, to a final destination.

2. Students will be able to explain the concept of *selective perception.*

Grade levels: Upper elementary through secondary.

Procedures: The teacher asks for or recruits six volunteers to serve as the subjects of the experiment. The rest of the class serves as observers. (In one variation, the entire class can participate in the experiment.)

Five students leave the classroom and remain in the hall or another room until called. The message to be transmitted is then read to the first volunteer and shown to the observers. Called a "teacher's report," the message contains a description of a fight that started in a class and the teacher's frantic plea to the principal for help.

> *Teacher's report:* There has been a fight in my English class between three Puerto Rican boys and three white boys—Anglos. Somebody pulled a knife, but one of the boys knocked it down. Two Puerto Rican boys are injured and bleeding and I have sent someone to call an ambulance. I can't leave my room because the class is very tense and I'm afraid some groups from the neighborhood may hear about the fight and force their way in the school. I have sent the three white boys to the principal's office. Would you pass the message along to the Main Office. Tell them to send for the police—fast!
>
> The first volunteer calls the second into the room and tells what he or she has heard. The second then calls the third volunteer into the room and so on until the message reaches the last (sixth) volunteer, who plays the role of the principal. The "principal" writes what he or she hears on newsprint or the blackboard. The original report is compared with the last version. The observers report in the debriefing session on the manner in which the message was changed in transmission and speculate on the reasons for the changes.

This experiment is reminiscent of the one carried out by Allport and Postman in the 1940s to assess the tendency of some Americans to transfer stereotyped images of minority groups (Allport and Postman 1947). The findings of Allport and Postman might be explained to the class. Slobin (1971, p. 104) sums up the kinds of changes that occur in remembering stories in such experiments:

> There is a levelling: many events drop out, the story becomes much shorter and schematic. But at the same time there is sharpening: some details achieve a peculiar sort of salience, and are repeated time after time in retelling. There is assimilation to schemata or stereotypes or expectations.

An interesting variation of this experiment may be found in *Images of People*, prepared by Sociological Resources for the Social Studies (1969).

Another activity that may be used to foster interpersonal skills in communication is "brainstorming"—a group problem-solving activity designed to encourage a varied number of ideas or solutions to a problem by suspending criticism. Following brainstorming, the ideas generated are carefully scrutinized. This technique could be based on actual, but disguised, historical incidents, such as the invasion of South Korea by North Korea, or events taken from today's headlines, such as the hijacking of an American plane in which passengers are held hostage in a Latin American country.

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-4-

Improving Reading Comprehension

No attempt will be made in this chapter to analyze the many complex factors that affect comprehension in the social studies. Nor will all the strategies designed to address problems of comprehension be identified and explained in detail. Instead, the authors have chosen to explain and illustrate those techniques and strategies that appear to have the greatest potential for application to social studies teaching without extensive training or preparation. After a brief clarification of the nature of comprehension, the discussion considers: (1) a technique for using psycholinguistic information in analyzing comprehension and prescribing content-centered reading strategies; (2) procedures for developing vocabulary skill, including use of context aids, morphemic analysis, cloze as an instructional rather than assessment procedure, and games to develop vocabulary skills; (3) activities for developing reading skills at the inferential and evaluative levels of comprehension; (4) techniques to be used in prereading and study exercises; (5) exercises to improve speed of comprehension in the social studies; and (6) approaches to classroom organization and management that facilitate reading comprehension in the social studies.

Comprehension

Comprehension refers to the complex process of obtaining meaning from printed or spoken language. It is a broad term that includes specific processes for deriving meaning and identifying levels of meaning. There seems to be a tendency among reading specialists to distinguish, on the basis of logical analysis, between *literal* comprehension (simple recall of what is explicitly stated) and *inferential* or *interpretive* comprehension ("reading between the lines"). However, one must concede that research to date has not provided much support for the clear delineation of subskills. What emerges from analyses of research is the finding that, while word knowledge may be distinguishable as a skill, other skills are not as readily differentiated, with the exception of a category termed "reading as reasoning" (Harris and Sipay 1975, pp. 472-74). One analysis, using sophisticated factor analysis techniques, has indicated the possible existence of four skills: recalling word

meanings, drawing inferences from content, following the structure of a passage, and recognizing a writer's purpose, attitude, tone, and mood (Harris and Sipay 1975, p. 473). Even though the existence of clearly distinguishable levels and subskills of comprehension is not presently supported by a firm data base, there is still value in providing opportunities for pupils to respond to different types of comprehension questions. "When this is done," observe Harris and Sipay (1975, p. 474), "students can improve their ability to reason while reading many kinds of materials with a variety of specific purposes."

Using Psycholinguistic Information to Improve Comprehension

The following procedure is derived from psycholinguistic research on analysis of miscues in oral reading behavior (Tortelli 1976, pp. 637-39). There appears to be a relationship between the use of oral language and the comprehension of written language; miscues are viewed as responses in reading that do not coincide with the intended response. By studying the relationship of miscues to intended responses, we can better understand how pupils gain meaning from the reading process and, hence, can prescribe strategies to help them. This procedure is intended for teacher use and is not intended to replace the more thorough and formal approach of Goodman and Burke (1972).

Directions for using simplified psycholinguistic analysis. (1) The pupil reads aloud an unfamiliar paragraph or section of text or story. (2) The teacher records ten of the pupil's unintended meanings or substitutions on a sheet of paper. It may be helpful to tape the reading and to play it back later. (3) The teacher makes a simple analysis, as illustrated on the sample checklist (which was based on a social studies passage). First, the unexpected meanings or miscues are listed. Then, the intended meanings or actual words in the passage are listed. Under the category "language," the teacher determines if the unexpected meaning sounds like language, that is, whether it sounds grammatically "correct" when viewed apart from the question of meaning. Indicate "no" if the substitution does not sound like language. Finally, the teacher looks carefully at the meaning of the unintended reading. Does it change the meaning of the passage, even though it is grammatically correct (sounds like language)? Indicate "yes" if the meaning is the same as the author's. Indicate "no" if the meaning is changed. (4) The teacher then records the number of unexpected responses marked in the language column that resemble language and the number of readings in the meaning column that coincide with the author's intended meanings.

Teacher Recording of Ten Unintended Meanings

1. The *2. trains* *3. India* *4. strengthened*

This rapid development of trade and industry stimulated a de-

5. best *6. tons*
mand for better transportation. The new towns had to be fed, the

7. men *8. fenced* *9. shifted*
new mills supplied with raw material, and the finished goods shipped

10. marks
to markets.

Sample Checklist: Intended Meanings

Miscues	*Readings*	*Language*	*Meaning*
1. The	this	Yes	Yes
2. trains	trade	Yes	No
3. India	industry	Yes	No
4. strengthened	stimulated	Yes	No
5. best	better	Yes	No
6. tons	town	Yes	No
7. men	mills	Yes	No
8. fenced	finished	Yes	No
9. shifted	shipped	Yes	No
10. marks	markets	No	No
	Total	9	1

From the example, it is apparent that our reader tries to use largely graphophonic cues (letter/sound relationships) to produce words that "fit in" grammatically. On the other hand, the reader's ability to use semantic (meaning) cues is underdeveloped; he or she has not learned how to focus on the meanings of words and is overdependent on letter/sound relationships. Using cloze procedures to encourage the pupil to apply intuitive knowledge of language and experiences or background is recommended. Use of inferences in reading should also be encouraged. Maps, political symbols, and pictures can be used to induce the reader to draw inferences and to predict and test the meaning of words.

Improving Vocabulary and Related Skills

Social studies students face at least two persistent problems with vocabulary: (1) finding the meaning of general vocabulary items that vary in meaning according to context (for example, *wing* and *class*) and (2) understanding specialized vocabulary related to the field of study (for example, *autocracy* and *monarchy*). Experience indicates that many students with reading problems in the social studies have not learned how to use context aids efficiently. Far too many seem overdependent on phonic analysis skills (sounding out the unfamiliar word). This is not to condemn the use of these basic phonics skills, which are clearly essential and sometimes neglected; however, other language

cueing systems (semantic or meaning cues and grammatical relationships) are required to derive meaning from social studies materials. Phonic skills, including the application of rules concerning the use of consonant blends and syllabication, are not stressed here primarily because most social studies teachers, except perhaps in the primary grades, will have neither the time nor the inclination to deal with this problem. For those who wish to pursue it further, however, references are listed in the Bibliography.

A brief explanation is in order concerning context clues. Various schemata have been proposed to classify such clues (Quealy 1969). However, most clues appear to fall into three main categories (Emans 1969): (1) meaning-bearing clues (drawing on the "sense of the sentence," synonyms, and so forth), (2) language-bearing clues (structural or grammatical elements), and (3) organization clues (relationship to main idea, for instance). The following are selected examples of different types of context clues applied to social studies content. The italicized word is assumed to be the unfamiliar word, the meaning of which may be obtained from a careful scrutiny of available clues.

> *Synonym clue:* The *homesteader*, or settler, paid only ten dollars for all this land.
> *Definition or description:* The congressman's conduct was *inexplicable*. No one could tell why he was late.
> *Main idea and supporting details:* Slowly, the first *glacier* built itself up from billions of tons of Canadian snow. The snow became packed into heavy ice by its great weight.

In developing skill in using context clues, two approaches are recommended. First, the cloze procedure may be used to induce a student to try to figure out the meaning of words deleted from passages of material. A third-grade level example of the instructional application of cloze (from Senesh 1973, p. 25) is:

> New people live in this neighborhood now. There are new stores and tall office _____.

One can, of course, provide additional clues, if needed, to encourage students to guess. The first two letters of the missing word might be supplied (tall office bu_____), or a multiple choice format used:

. . . tall office [buildings / baskets / playgrounds]

A junior-high level example of the application of cloze is taken from Fersh (1965, p. 92):

> India is not separated from Asia by water and is therefore not considered a(n) _____.

An oral version of cloze may also be utilized, in which the teacher audiotapes newscasts, commercials, and even sports commentaries. Then, during the playback, the teacher will stop at various intervals and ask how the sentence can be completed. Comparisons can then be made with the actual syntax on tape and the class can determine if the prediction was syntactically and semantically appropriate. This activity can be developed into a game in which groups of students compete.

For students with serious vocabulary deficiencies, it is helpful to employ a language experience activity in conjunction with the Visual, Auditory, Kinesthetic, Tactile (VAKT) tracing technique developed by Grace M. Fernald (1943). In this approach—which requires some individual assistance from a volunteer tutor, an aide, or perhaps an older student—the pupil develops an interpretation of an event or problem related to the content of the course. The interpretation, given orally, is then taped and transcribed for use as a reading activity. The words in the account that the pupil is unable to read are identified and one word is selected for tracing, according to the Fernald technique. The teacher first writes or prints the word and then traces it, while pronouncing it and maintaining contact between finger and paper. The student then follows the example of the teacher, tracing and pronouncing the word several times. Then the student is given blank paper and asked to write the word from memory and to use it orally in a sentence.

If the student responds to this approach (called "multisensory" by some) and begins to build a sight vocabulary, he or she should, in time, be able to discontinue the tracing procedure and use context aids and structural clues in word recognition. It is, of course, possible to use this procedure to assist groups of disabled or slow readers to learn specialized vocabulary words, although it is not likely to be as productive as when used with a language experience approach. Complete directions on how to use this tested clinical tool in the classroom are provided by Gentry (1974).

An interesting and promising procedure to improve vocabulary and concept development through the use of morphemes has been proposed by Burmeister (1976). This author explains that a morpheme is the "smallest unit of meaning in the English language" and that morphemes may be "free" (capable of standing alone) or "bound" (prefixes, suffixes, and some roots that must be attached to another morpheme to complete a word). While students may have encountered bound morphemes in reading, it may not have been apparent to them that these meaningful units may be combined with others to compose new terms.

The social studies teacher may employ morphemic analysis inductively by listing on the blackboard the words *automobile*, *automat*, and *autobiography* and asking what morpheme the terms have in common. Students then may be asked to define *auto* (done for or by oneself) and to apply it to other known elements to obtain meaning (for instance, *autosuggestion*). Other bound morphemes frequently found in social studies materials may be used in context

and then studied as in the example above (for instance, *cracy*, meaning power and might).

Two additional resources to facilitate the use of morphology in vocabulary and concept building are provided by Burmeister (1976). The article lists "morpheme families" derived from social studies content and gives directions for playing two interesting games, Morpheme Concentration and Morpheme Wordo.

A concept-vocabulary development chart may also be introduced on occasions (Rowell 1977). This approach may be used in both elementary and secondary social studies classes to stress the development of skill in categorization—an essential element in concept formation (Hafner 1977, pp. 95-123). An example of such a chart is provided.

Figure 1
Concept-Vocabulary Development Chart

Examine each of the words below. Then regroup them under the headings in the following columns according to the degree to which you think the words can be associated with or used to describe the same objects or conditions as those words at the top of each column.

governed	moor	treaty	arbitration
negotiate	mountainous	ruled	lowlands
represented	elected	settle	Senate
highlands	terrain	disputed	peninsula
precipitation	humidity	Congress	island

Group 1	*Group 2*	*Group 3*	*Group 4*
rainfall	coastline	voted	armistice

Improving Comprehension at Inferential and Evaluative Levels

Two levels of comprehension that are essential to an understanding of social studies materials are the inferential level and the evaluative level. According to the Barrett Taxonomy of Cognitive and Affective Dimensions (Clymer 1968), the inferential level requires that the student demonstrate ability to synthesize the literal (factual) content using intuition, personal knowledge, and imagination as a basis for conjectures or hypotheses. To operate on an evaluative level, the student is encouraged to engage in critical reading, that is, to make judgments concerning what has been read with reference to accuracy, worth, truthfulness, and quality. Unfortunately, there are indications that these levels still suffer from neglect in instructional programs which place heavy emphasis on literal comprehension, or the recall and recognition of details.

Accordingly, the following paragraphs include strategies or ideas suited to both elementary and secondary grades for developing reading skills at inferential and evaluative levels. For teachers who seek more information and assistance on the improvement of specific comprehension skills, such as comparison-and-contrast and sequence, the Bibliography lists several appropriate resource kits and media packages.

At the inferential level of comprehension, one approach that has appeal in the elementary, and possibly early junior high, level is the use of folktales, or "prose narratives," as anthropologists call them. Folktales are clearly within the realm of the social studies, since they deal with the transmission of cultural values and sometimes serve as a medium of political persuasion. "People's folktales," observed anthropologist Ruth Benedict, "are in this sense their autobiography and clearest mirror of their life" (Benedict 1931, pp. 228-93).

One procedure, proposed here as an example, is the study of a West African folktale, "The Man and the Mango Tree" (Holladay 1970). Written at a fifth-grade readability level, the story still indirectly communicates a significant lesson about the penalties of being unable to make up one's mind. The teacher might read the story while the children follow by viewing a transparency of the tale. Afterwards, the children might draw pictures depicting what happened in the story (the man could not decide which fruit to pick) and then explore the meaning of the narrative. Similar strategies may be followed in using folktales from Appalachia, New England, the Southwest, and other regions of the United States (Chase 1956). In addition, a rich resource may be found in the folktales of other cultures (Carlson 1972). Stories may be recorded by children, played back to the class, and stopped in several places for questions: How is this tale from Greece similar to the one we heard from Mexico? or, What do you think will happen next?

To challenge more mature readers, the teacher may develop "discovery episodes"* at various readability levels, drawing on interesting historical documents, letters to presidents, and eyewitness accounts of major events. Students may be placed in groups of three to five, given the episodes, in which explicit references to the identity of the author or the event have been removed, and asked to determine from the available clues what was happening and who was involved. Students with reading difficulties may be given episodes that contain more clues and that are less complex. One episode used successfully with secondary students is based on a Kikuyu story related by Jomo Kenyatta in *Facing Mount Kenya* (1962). The story is presented in the form of a fable involving animals and a man; in reality, it served as a political indictment of the British colonial policy in East Africa preceding the Mau Mau rebellion. (Appendix D contains an example of a discovery episode designed to be used in upper elementary and junior high school classes studying United States history.)

Discovery activities may also be used effectively with cloze and language experience procedures to build reading skills. Summarized in the following paragraphs are a number of activities which have been developed or adapted from published materials and tested in classrooms with pupils with reading problems.

Site map: playing the role of archaeological detective. This activity is based on materials contained in *Patterns in Human History*, developed by the Anthropology Curriculum Study Project and published by Macmillan (1971). The students are presented with an archaeological site map in which various symbols and pictures depict what was left at the site. Students then attempt to determine who lived at the site, how they made a living, the climate, and so on. They then record their findings and prepare a report. (Upper elementary through high school.)

Archaeological artifacts: speculating on uses. Even children in the early elementary grades can be introduced to objects such as models of prehistoric tools and can determine how they might have been used. Examples of artifacts are available in *Patterns in Human History*; the University of Georgia has also developed anthropological materials for elementary children in a federally funded project (Rice 1968). (Elementary through junior high.)

Analyzing photographs. Edward A. Fernald (1972), a professional geographer, has developed an interesting activity in which children can grasp

*The term "discovery episode" has been associated with the inquiry movement in the development of new social studies curricula. Discovery procedures, however, have not been systematically used in the social studies to improve reading skills, and much can be done to utilize published material more effectively. For a rationale for the use of the discovery approach in the social studies, see Massialas and Zevin (1967).

the meaning of land use patterns (and the vocabulary associated with this concept) by planning a freeway. The students study actual aerial photographs of a location in Dade County, Florida prior to and after the construction of an interstate highway. (Such photographs are usually available from state agencies and planning commissions.)

Another application of this technique illustrates stages in the growth of a city or region. In this activity, students study slides or actual photographs depicting life in Florida in selected towns from the civil war period to the present. In some cases, photographs show changes in a particular location over a period of 100 years. Students are asked to list the objects they see and then to note how these objects are related (categorized) and what terms (or concepts) may be applied to them. (For example, the term "transportation" may be applied to a list of such items as horses, carts, trains, and so on.) Later, pupils are asked to note and record differences in various photographs and to provide explanations. This strategy is derived from the concept formation approach developed by Hilda Taba (1967). Slides have been prepared for this exercise from a collection of photographs in the State of Florida Photographic Archives, Strozier Library, Florida State University. Teachers who are interested in developing similar exercises may obtain information on photographic archives in their states by contacting state libraries or historical societies. Language experience strategies can also be used to encourage children to dictate or tape accounts explaining how changes reflected in the photos occurred in their community. (Upper elementary through junior high.)

Mystery Town and the missing heir. With the assistance of both reading teachers and social studies teachers, a game has been developed stressing development of skill in using context to obtain meaning from historical documents (Lunstrum 1977). The game involves students in the search for evidence to locate the victim of a kidnapping. In the course of their search, they examine fragments of old city directories, sketches of the town, and other data. A cloze procedure has been used to delete explicit references to the identity of the mystery town and students must apply skill in the use of various context cues in solving the mystery and obtaining information about the town—occupational structure, economic base, ethnic and racial groups, and so on. (Upper elementary through high school.)

At the level of critical reading, one activity that may be used in upper elementary and secondary social studies classes focuses on a case study of the memorable, well-publicized "War of the Worlds" radio broadcast, which induced widespread panic in 1938. You might do the following: Have the students listen to selected parts of the broadcast while they follow the actual script (Koch 1969) shown on a screen by an overhead projector. The students are asked to identify the panic-inducing elements of the broadcast (selection of words, imitations of eyewitness news reporting, appeals to scientific authority; study the defense or explanation offered by Orson Welles, the

producer, and the Columbia Broadcasting System; and examine public reaction expressed in letters to the editors of major newspapers. (See, for instance, "Letters to the Editor," *The New York Times*, November 2, 1938.) In addition, a role-playing activity may be created in which an imaginary hearing by the Federal Communications Commission (FCC) is undertaken. This is not entirely imaginary, for the FCC was urged to take vigorous action. Information concerning this may be derived from accounts in *The New York Times* shortly after the broadcast of October 30.

Other activities focusing on aspects of critical comprehension can readily be devised. If the teacher or students have access to a shortwave receiver or perhaps to a member of a shortwave listening club, a "DXer" (Shaw 1975), recordings may be made, and played back in class, of English-language news broadcasts and commentaries from Radio Moscow, the British Broadcasting Corporation, Radio Havana, and Radio Nederland—to suggest only a few of the more active government shortwave stations. Students can be asked to note differences and similarities in coverage of controversial news events, types of programs, and appeals to listeners. It would also prove interesting to record, for playback and study in class, some of the clandestine, liberation, or revolutionary broadcasts in different parts of the world. Possibilities include Freedom Radio (Irish Nationalist, Provisional IRA), Voice of Ulster (Orange, pro-British Northern Ireland), and Radio Euzkadi (Basque nationalist government in exile). Valuable resources for this activity are *How to Listen to the World* (Frost 1972) and the current *World Radio TV Handbook* (Frost 1976).

Contemporary and historic political speeches can also be analyzed in terms of Hugh Rank's "doublespeak" schema of intensification and downplaying of language. Rank (1976) contends that the traditional propaganda analysis classifications, such as "testimonial" and "bandwagon," are outmoded. More information about this approach is provided in the National Council of Teachers of English publication *Teaching about Doublespeak* (Dieterich 1976). (Appendix D contains an example of the application of the doublespeak schema to social studies material.)

Prereading and Study Activities

Prereading activities refer primarily to exercises or procedures used to introduce a reading assignment, provide a sense of direction or purpose, and give background information—all of which are vital to comprehension. Basically, there appear to be two kinds of prereading activities: those that are primarily teacher-centered and those that are mainly student-centered (Hansell 1976). Traditionally associated with the teacher-centered approach are films, filmstrips, and introductory lectures. More recently, a useful tool introduced by Herber and his colleagues (1969) is the structured overview. The overview is a diagrammatic representation of the "basic vocabulary of a

unit so as to show relationships among the concepts represented by those words" (Estes, Mills, and Barron 1969). Figure 2 illustrates a structured overview designed by Ronald J. Hash to introduce a unit on the geography of India.* The teacher's task is to clarify and explain the terminology and show its relationship to the ideas that will be covered. The structured overview is sometimes used in conjunction with the three-level study guide, to be explained and illustrated later in this chapter.

Student-centered prereading activities encourage students to discuss, think, or speculate about the content of topics to be studied. Some of the "new social studies" programs use provocative case studies to confront students and to engage them in discussion of issues. Another example of this approach in the social studies may be found in the use of discovery episodes (Massialas and Zevin 1967). The episode based on a Kikuyu folk tale described earlier could be useful, for example, to introduce a unit on modern Africa.

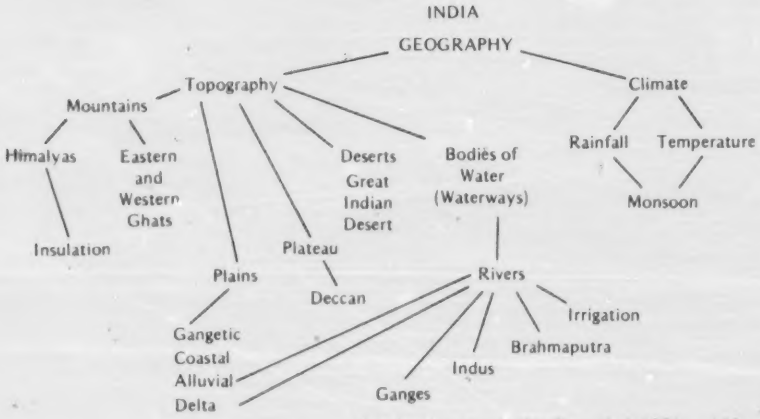
There have been numerous proposals and recommendations over the years from reading specialists addressing the task of how to study or how to read a book. SQ3R, an acronym for the stages Survey, Question, Read, Recite, and Review or Reconstruct (Burmeister 1974, pp. 84-85), is a five-step program frequently cited in the literature. There is, of course, abundant evidence of the need for teachers in most subject areas to provide instruction and practice in how to study the content of their disciplines. Unfortunately, it seems widely and erroneously assumed that the task of developing study skills belongs to someone else—usually the English teacher. The authors regret that it is not possible within the scope of this publication to do more than suggest a careful consideration of the topic, using the sources indicated in the Bibliography.

Another functional, or content-centered, strategy that anticipates the act of reading and contributes to a sense of purpose is the composition of reading or study guides. Such guides are designed to offer both structure and direction on three levels of comprehension within a lesson. These levels are identified in Herber's model (1970, pp. 62-63), described in chapter 2, but bear repeating here:

> *Level 1*—literal understanding, or recall of factual details;
> *Level 2*—interpretation, or the utilization of inferential skills; and
> *Level 3*—application, or the formulation of generalizations and the extension of the meaning of concepts beyond the immediate context.

*Hash encourages persons desiring more specific information about strategies to contact him. Write to Dr. Ronald J. Hash, Assistant Professor of Secondary, Higher, and Foundations of Education, Teachers College, Ball State University, Muncie, Indiana 47306.

Figure 2
A Structured Overview



Reprinted by permission from Hash 1974, p. 152

The study guide is viewed as a strategy for adapting texts and other materials to the varying levels of reading ability. Yet, it is not assumed that students will never move beyond the literal level; the guide should also assist in improving skill in reading.

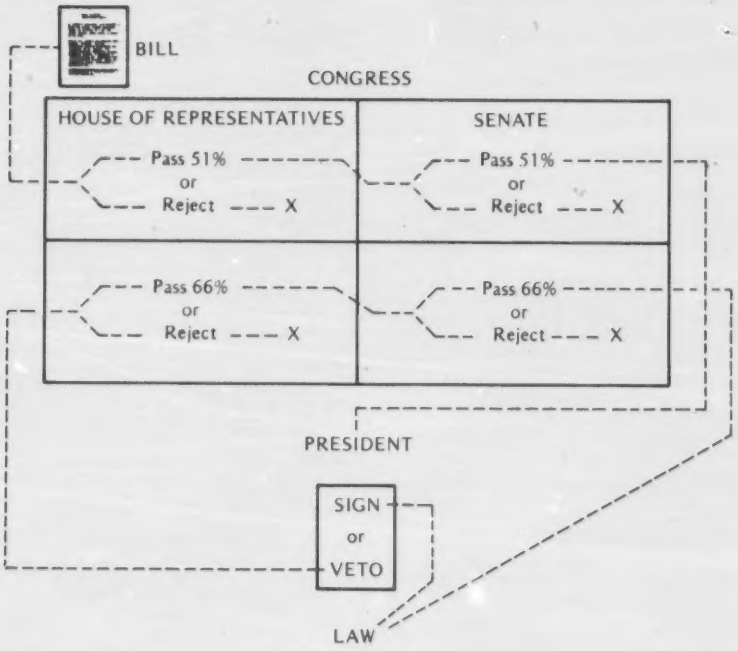
Neither is it assumed that the teacher will have the time or inclination to prepare study guides on a daily basis; it is hoped, however, that the guides can be used to introduce important or difficult topics. To aid in the study of how a bill becomes a law, a specific guide, complete with questions directed at each level of comprehension, was prepared.*

Improving the Speed of Comprehension

Virtually every social studies class will have its share of word-by-word readers who painfully and laboriously engage in the overanalysis of each word they encounter. Social studies teachers who have heard these students read aloud are all too familiar with the monotonous, labored pace, exhausting to both reader and listener. Some students are possibly handicapped by the lack of an adequate sight vocabulary and basic word-recognition skills and will require special remedial help. Others can be helped if the teacher is willing to invest a little time in developing and using appropriate exercises. Indeed, the entire class might derive benefits from such activities.

*Reprinted with permission from Hash 1974, p. 159.

Figure 3
Study Guide:
How a Bill Becomes a Law



How a Bill Becomes a Law

Directions:

1. Look at the chart above.
2. Place a check-mark before the statements with which you agree in the column marked "individual."
3. When instructed, get into small groups and, as a group, reach a consensus on each of the statements. Place your answer in the column marked "group."

Level 1: What did the drawing show?

Individual	Group	
____	____	1. A law is called a bill before it is a law.
____	____	2. Congress makes laws.
____	____	3. Both houses of Congress must pass a law.

Level 2: What does the drawing mean?

Individual	Group	
____	____	1. A majority is needed to pass a law.
____	____	2. A rejection by the House or the Senate kills a bill's chances of becoming a law.
____	____	3. A veto by the president kills a bill's chances of becoming a law.
____	____	4. The president's signature is necessary in order for a bill to become a law.
____	____	5. A two-thirds vote in both houses of Congress is necessary to pass a law over the president's veto.
____	____	6. The president is a part of the legislative process.
____	____	7. Congress is the legislative branch of the national government.

Level 3: As a group, discuss and write out an answer to the following question: Why is a 66 percent vote of both houses needed to pass a law over the president's veto, when only a 51 percent vote is necessary to pass a law on to the president?

It is important to be flexible in adapting reading rate to the type of content and purpose of study. The term *scanning* refers to the technique employed in locating a specific date, name, or fact. The reader casts his or her eyes quickly over the pages to pick out the detail being sought. For some, it may be well to begin teaching this skill with simple tasks, such as finding names in a phone book. Later, newspapers can be used; students may attempt to quickly locate various types of classified advertisements. Once the skill is developed, it should be applied to the text by using an index, reviewing for a test, and other such tasks.

Skimming is more thorough than scanning. Skimming requires the reader to quickly view a topic or section of printed material in order to obtain the gist or overall view. In addition to looking for such technical aids as headings, subheadings, and topic sentences, the reader must also be able to bring scattered data together in the form of a summary. Again, it is advisable to begin with relatively easy material, unless the class is advanced. Exercises can be based on the *TV Guide* or selected sections of newspapers. Specific examples of exercises to increase speed, utilizing social studies content at the upper elementary level, follow.

Reading by phrase or thought unit. The following exercise (Russell et al. 1975, p. 245) is designed to help the word-by-word reader. Ask the student or students to take in each group of words at one time.

The physical features of a place are another part
of natural environment. Physical features
are the natural things that make up the surface of the Earth.
Physical features are mostly landforms or bodies of water.

Recognizing words. This exercise is suggested by Burmeister (1974 p. 243). Ask the student to look carefully at the first word of each line. Then explain that the object is to find and underline, as quickly as possible, the same word among the four words that follow. On some lines there will not be two like words. Tell the students that they should time themselves on the exercise. The words can be taken from a glossary or index.

1. prediction preference environment Bible prediction ally
2. labor loom labor pollution inventor profit
3. authority army observe class demand barter
4. government legislature election war bank government
5. tariff veto frontier tariff secede rebel

Finding the irrelevant word or phrase. This exercise is also offered by Burmeister (1974, p. 241). Students are told that in each numbered paragraph there is an irrelevant word or phrase. They are to read as rapidly as they can to find and underline the irrelevant or nonsense phrase or word. As they read, the teacher should record five-second time intervals on the board. When finished with all the paragraphs, the student should record the last time written on the board. An example of one such paragraph follows:

> Because the United States is a republic, Americans give authority to leaders who represent them. We can also say that the United States is a representative democracy because it is a republic with federal and state constitutions that urge all people to use deodorants.

Classroom Grouping and Management

A persistent, complex problem for many social studies teachers is how to carry on an organized, effective instructional program when their students vary in reading ability from nonreaders, or "functional illiterates," to advanced readers. There is, of course, no easy answer to this problem. It is foolish to pretend that a teacher can be all things to all people—that he or she can teach the nonreaders to read, challenge the advanced students, and expand the knowledge of the broad middle range. Nonreaders or those of marginal reading ability clearly need individual attention and special assistance which they cannot obtain in a heterogeneously grouped class. Nevertheless, there are still some constructive measures that the teacher and the school can introduce.

Differentiated assignments. Assignment sheets can be clearly marked to indicate minimal requirements and optional activities. A three-level study

guide can be used to provide direction and reinforcement for students of varying reading ability.

Individualized instruction. "Task cards" and "job sheets" can be prepared for individual students according to their needs and abilities. Skill-development activities at varying readability levels are available from publishers. Some tasks may focus on finding literal meaning or details in a passage of social studies text. Others may contain discovery episodes requiring students to speculate on meaning and draw inferences. Learning centers may also contain media exercises or games that can be assigned, and activities and programs can be prepared or selected on the basis of the results of an informal group reading inventory or maze or cloze exercises.

Grouping. Flexible grouping according to criteria of skill or interest can be introduced in order to carry out certain reading-related activities in the class, such as conducting an opinion survey of classmates or the community, interviewing local elected officials on matters of law enforcement or pollution, or planning a report.

Peer tutoring. Where critical problems of severe reading disabilities persist and resources are lacking to set up special instructional programs in the school, a teacher may encourage school authorities to initiate a peer tutoring program. In this, students who are proficient readers devote two or three hours a week to taping passages of textual material for playback, helping record and type language experience stories, playing social studies language games, and the like.

A Concluding Note

Many social studies teachers recognize that to read and comprehend the content of their field is a critical problem for large numbers of students. The authors have attempted to show the alternatives available to teachers for developing and strengthening reading competencies in their discipline. The decisions that teachers make about relationships between reading and learning in their classes will significantly affect the capacity of their students to grasp the meaning and relevance of the vital issues that will confront them as citizens.

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Appendix A

Review of Research

Readability of curriculum materials, affective influences on reading behavior, critical reading skills, and content-centered instructional strategies are four topics of special concern to social studies teachers who wish to help students develop reading skills. Research on these four topics is discussed in the following pages.

Readability of Social Studies Texts and Materials

In a broad sense, a variety of factors may influence the readability of a set of instructional materials. These factors include not only linguistic elements but also the interest and purpose of the reader, the format of the materials, and so on. Some of these factors are difficult, if not impossible, to incorporate into formulas. Hence, there has developed a practice of utilizing basically two simple variables—word length and sentence length—to derive estimates of the level of difficulty of printed materials. Research supports the utility of a number of such formulas for making "relatively good predictions of readability" (Klare 1974-1975, pp. 97-98). Reliance on teacher judgments in determining readability levels—a common practice—may contribute to erroneous estimates. This is brought out in a recent study of a sample of elementary teachers (Jorgenson 1975). In this study, teachers were able to make fairly accurate estimates for simpler materials but, as the materials advanced in grade level, there was a decrease in accuracy of judgments.

From the late 1950s through the 1960s, studies of the readability levels of elementary social studies texts presented a discouraging picture. Reports by Wyatt and Ridgeway (1958) and Arnsdorf (1963) revealed that the range of difficulty within social studies texts was often greater than the range between texts assigned to different grade levels. Smith and Dechant (1961) reported that readability levels of one or two grades above the designated grade level were characteristic of elementary content-area texts of that period. More recently, Johnson and Vardian (1973) applied four readability formulas in the assessment of sixty-eight social studies texts from first through sixth grades. Their findings have left no doubt that the readability problems of elementary social studies texts are, as yet, unresolved.

The problem of readability is by no means confined to textbooks. Widely used as resources in upper elementary social studies classes are encyclopedias, forms that present similar difficulties. Edgerton (1954) was among the first to call attention to the unrealistically high reading levels of several popular encyclopedias. In the following decade, Liske (1968) investigated the problem and concluded that, in grades four through six, only children of above-average ability could successfully use these resources. Recently, another investigator (Dohrman 1974) applied the Dale-Chall formula and the Fry graph to the assessment of eight encyclopedias frequently used in intermediate-grade social studies classes. Based on analysis of seventy-five representative social studies topics, she found that 66 percent were above the intended grade levels.

Studies of readability levels of secondary social studies texts are not as extensive as those in the elementary field. However, what has been found in the research is far from reassuring. In one study, the investigators (Janz and Smith 1972) were interested in any discrepancy that might exist between the reading ability of a representative sample of 590 eighth-, ninth-, and tenth-grade students and the readability levels of their assigned textbooks in social studies, science, and English. After administering standardized reading tests and assessing readability through the Flesch formula, they discovered that all social studies texts ranged in readability from grade nine through college, and that the texts were too difficult for more than 60 percent of the eighth-grade students, for more than 75 percent of the ninth-grade students, and for from 36 to 93 percent of the tenth-grade students. In another investigation, Hash (1974a) focused his attention on the "new social studies" materials. Applying the Dale-Chall formula and the Fry graph to three randomly selected readings from each of five randomly chosen "new social studies" projects, he found represented a range of levels as great as six years within some materials.

As useful as they are in providing indices of difficulty, readability formulas do not provide any help in determining concept loading or assessing the complexity and ambiguity of conceptual patterns (Estes 1972, p. 86). Both of these factors may pose critical problems for students in comprehending their "new social studies" materials. From a recent, although limited, examination of "new social studies" materials, Hash (1974a, pp. 20-26) concluded that both vocabulary loading and concept loading are likely to present difficulties for readers. The practice of introducing more readings from primary sources that contain technical and archaic word usages, Hash reported, has contributed to this problem. In history texts, the increasing tendency of some authors to use figurative expressions may actually confuse, rather than enlighten, pupils, as Carter (1977) has found. These apprehensions about conceptual complexity have been confirmed by Martorella (1971, p. 67) and Peters (1975-1976, pp. 93-95). The latter found in his analysis of the literature that social studies textbooks offer only "cursory presentations of concepts." "The reader," concluded Peters, "is not provided with sufficient information and in many

cases he is required to infer definitions." Peters went on in an interesting experiment to demonstrate that social studies materials could be restructured by teachers according to a concept attainment procedure in order to substantially improve comprehension (Peters 1975-1976, pp. 87-111).

Affective Influences on Reading

The impact of affective considerations on the motivation to read as well as on reading performance has been the subject of much concern in reading research. As a guideline derived from this literature, the social studies teacher will find it helpful to bear in mind that the overall emotional and social climate of the classroom may be as important in helping students with reading problems as time spent on teaching basic skills. Specifically, the components in the climate-building process treated here include: (1) the self-concept of students, (2) teacher expectation of pupil performance, and (3) pupil attitude toward and interest in the content of the social studies class. These topics will be considered briefly in the following paragraphs, after which, attention will be focused on the practices suggested in the research for improving classroom climate and motivation.

The relationship between self-concept and reading has been the subject of numerous inquiries (Lang 1976). While most conclusions bearing on affective considerations in reading must be viewed as tentative, Athey and Holmes (1969) reported, after careful analysis of the literature, that "in general, the ability to read seems to be associated with positive attitudes about oneself and one's worth . . ." Poor readers "manifest correspondingly immature self-concepts." Unfortunately, it seems that this significant aspect of reading and its implications for instruction have not been recognized by some teachers in the elementary school (Quandt 1973).

What has been described in popular terms as the "Pygmalion effect," or the influence of teacher expectation on pupil performance, has been studied by Weintraub (1969) with particular attention given to the problem of reading. "Although the evidence is not incontrovertible," he observes, "a challenge has been directed" (p. 559). The tendency of some teachers to anticipate how their pupils will perform on reading tasks may explain, in part, the difficulties of those minority children who speak a nonstandard dialect. Goodman and Buck (1973) believe a teacher's negative response to nonstandard speech may affect the child's performance. Lending credence to this belief is the literature indicating that some teachers are unaware of sociocultural differences in multicultural classrooms and fail to provide appropriate motivational support to minority students (Ulibarri 1960; Moore 1972).

The fact that interest in a particular subject or activity is positively related to success in reading about that subject or activity should come as no surprise. Both logic and common sense, as well as research (Estes 1973), offer support.

Nevertheless, observation of patterns of teacher/pupil interaction (Herman 1969) suggests that teachers do not seem to find time to exploit this factor.

Closely related to interest is attitude toward content. On this topic, Fareed (1971) carried out an interesting experiment, employing a technique of "retrospective interpretive verbalization" applied to sixth-grade students' reading of passages in history and biology texts. Fareed discovered that attitude toward history "seems to be significantly and positively related to both the fluency in eliciting inquiry responses and the accuracy in making inferences from historical reading materials" (pp. 527-28). If Fareed is right, negative attitudes toward the content of social studies courses may be a barrier to both motivation and reading skill, for surveys in the past (for example, "What Students Think of Their Courses" 1969) have disclosed a notable lack of enthusiasm in pupils at all levels for their social studies courses. Still, there are some encouraging signs that students' attitudes, as shown in recent studies (Ehman, Jennings, and Niemi 1974), have become more positive.

How can teachers respond to the affective conditions associated with reading problems in the social studies and improve classroom climate and motivation? Recent research suggests promising guidelines and strategies, some of which are summarized in the following paragraphs.

With particular reference to self-concept, Spache (1970, pp. 15-24) has advocated a form of "bibliotherapy," contending that "books themselves are a major tool in modifying self-concept." He has selected an extensive list of books with low readability levels but with interesting, compelling themes addressed to the needs of various racial and ethnic groups.

Still, large numbers of students with negative attitudes towards reading are not likely to embrace the notion of reading books. In working with these students, teachers may find help in recent research on the use of value clarifying strategies in reading. For example, in using value clarifying strategies based on the work of Raths, Harmin, and Simon (1966), Fitzpatrick (1975) reported a significant effect on self-concept and reading achievement. Fitzpatrick worked with a representative sample of seventh graders enrolled in the parochial schools of a metropolitan, Roman Catholic archdiocese. Similar findings on the significant effects of value clarification have been reported by Pracejus (1974) with a sample of eighth-grade students in a public school population in Pennsylvania. These findings reinforce the hypotheses of Holmes (1970) and Ruddell (1974) which speculate that personality traits and value structures may account for the role of what they call "affective mobilizers" (the "initial kick," in simpler terms) in providing a stimulus for effective reading performance.

One measure that may possibly improve attitude toward the social studies is greater emphasis on the study of controversial topics or public issues. Shaver (1969) believes that this will make the curriculum more "relevant to life" and presumably also sensitize the student to the need to read and reflect. The researcher in this case has accepted a model of reading that is "nearly synony-

mous with that for thinking" (p. 37). Shaver's view is supported by recent research by Dolan (1976) on the effects of value conflict discussions and by Festinger's (1957) earlier work on the theory of cognitive dissonance, which holds, in part, that students may be motivated by the presentation of contradictions between two or more fixed beliefs or values and by a need to establish an equilibrium and reduce disagreement.

Critical Reading and the Social Studies

The objective of critical reading has been frequently endorsed and stressed in the literature of the social studies. Much of the recognition of the importance of critical reading—and the related skill of critical listening—stems from well-founded apprehensions about the ability of citizens and consumers to cope with the barrage of misleading, biased information from both public and private agencies devoted to mass persuasion (Edelman 1975; Culyer 1973). It also appears that efforts to develop effective programs in critical reading have not been generally successful for a number of reasons, including the lack of effective teacher training and appropriate measuring instruments and instructional materials (Culyer 1973, pp. 16-20). In his analysis of research, Culyer stresses the lack of a "coherent model of critical reading" as a basic deterrent to the implementation of critical reading goals. This, indeed, may be a factor in the difficulty of distinguishing critical reading from critical thinking.*

For purposes of this review, it seems appropriate to identify four major traditions or alternative conceptions of critical reading and to note some important research associated with those conceptions. First, the view of critical reading as critical thinking has been expressed in Ennis' comprehensive critical reading model (1964). An important contribution has been made by Hash (1974a) in adapting elements of the Ennis model to critical reading guides that present a dialogue in narrative form dealing with a compelling problem or theme. In one example tested with teachers, the focus is on assessing the reliability of statements and explanations concerning the sighting of a "Sasquatch," the legendary human-like creature of the northwestern United States (Hash 1974b).

Another well-established view stresses the interpretation of critical reading as the detection of propaganda devices—usually those devices, such as "bandwagon" or "testimonial," derived from the work of the Institute of Propagan-

*The problem in differentiating between critical reading and critical thinking is interesting but too complex to be treated in this brief review. In general, the position taken in this paper is that the two are related inasmuch as reading is a cognitive process, as Thorndike (1971) pointed out. Still, there are linguistic and syntactic elements peculiar to the process of reading and listening. The opportunity for manipulation and exploitation of these elements (Stanley 1976; Rank 1976) justifies the need to treat critical reading as a separate problem until a viable comprehensive model appears.

da Analysis (IPA) in the 1930s (B. Smith 1974). A number of recent studies have demonstrated that even students in the intermediate grades can learn to detect the presence of propaganda techniques not only in textual materials but also in the mass media (B. Smith 1974; Wardell 1973). In one particularly interesting study, Cook (1972) demonstrated that the eight- to ten-year-old children in her sample could be "made aware of commercial propaganda emanating from television." Cook also contended, on the basis of "informal discussions" with teachers and pupils, that the pupils in her experimental groups transferred their newly acquired skills to reading and to the perception of advertising in newspapers.

A third view of critical reading is recent in origin, stemming from the creation of the Committee on Public Doublespeak by the National Council of Teachers of English. Launching what has become, in fact, a movement, Daniel Dieterich and others have described doublespeak as "the inhumane and dishonest use of language—deception, dishonesty, semantic distortion" (Dieterich 1975, p. 1). While the doublespeak movement does not seem to have had much influence thus far on the social studies, it has drawn on the talents of a number of thoughtful writers in the area of linguistics (Stanley 1976) and language education (Rank 1976), and it clearly deserves a hearing by social studies educators and practitioners. Particularly worth noting is Rank's rejection of the popular IPA propaganda classification scheme mentioned above. Not only does this 1930s vintage pattern make "intrinsic errors of classification" but, concludes Rank, "the list simply doesn't have the scope or flexibility to deal with contemporary propaganda" (p. 4). In its place, Rank has proposed a two-part schema focusing on the intensification of language through repetition, association, and composition and the downplaying of language through omission, diversion, and confusion (pp. 7-19).

A fourth major tradition of critical reading relevant to the social studies may be described as the application of the principles of logic to reading. Particularly, this view focuses on developing skill in recognizing logical fallacies. For research purposes, tests have been prepared to measure the development of these essential skills (B. Smith 1974). Particularly illustrative of this view of critical reading are four doctoral studies that assess the development of critical reading skill (defined as distinguishing between logical and illogical statements) from the primary grades through high school (Gall 1973; Culyer 1973; Spivak 1974; Johnson 1974). The results of these significant studies are summarized in the following statements:

1. Contrary to the beliefs of some educators, elementary pupils in grades two and three are capable of being critical listeners and readers (Johnson 1974).
2. There is a continuing development of critical reading ability from the fourth through the sixth grade (Gall 1973).

3. The expansion of critical reading continues through grades seven and eight (Spivak 1974), but a plateau is reached in high school (Culyer 1973).

The intriguing questions raised by these investigations are: What contributes to the growth of critical reading, even at an early age, without much evidence of direct instruction? and, What may account for the plateau in senior high school? The authors of these studies believe that concept building is important to the early stages of development and conclude that a case can be made for more systematic programs to develop the skills of critical reading.

Strategies Associated with a Content-centered Approach to Reading

A proposal for a content-centered approach to reading in the social studies must first deal with the question of what reading skills are appropriate to this field. A number of researchers have struggled with this question. Nila Smith (1968), for example, concluded, after analyzing social studies textbooks, that certain patterns were unique to the social studies field (for instance, comparison-and-contrast, sequential events with dates). However, another researcher (Herber 1972) has challenged this popular thesis of the existence of certain specific reading skills that are unique to each discipline. Herber (1972, pp. 198-99) contends that the uniqueness is not inherent in the skills themselves, but rather in their adaptation to meet the peculiarities of each discipline. For Herber, the evidence related to comprehension highlights the need to place more emphasis on "broader processes" rather than specific skills. While Herber does not specifically identify these broader processes, one may reasonably infer that concept learning is one of the major processes essential to comprehension in the social studies and other content areas. This view is consistent with a number of research findings, including those in the field of psycholinguistics (F. Smith 1971; Stauffer 1968).

Recently identified in research are specific strategies that can be used in a functional approach to developing reading skills in a content field. These include application of the cloze procedure for instructional purposes, design of structured overviews, and preparation of study or reading guides.

Cloze has been identified as a reliable predictor of functional reading levels (Bormuth 1968). When used for this purpose, it confronts the student with the task of replacing, in a 250-word passage, words that have been deleted—every fifth word, according to the Bormuth procedure. This procedure, with certain modifications, has been recommended for use in content areas as a means of developing sensitivity to context clues essential for comprehending new vocabulary and concepts. Jongsma (1971), who analyzed the research on the instructional use of cloze, conceded that the research base is not firmly established, but he urges recognition of the potential value of this strategy.

In other related studies, a number of systems for classifying context aids or clues have evolved (McCullough 1943; Deighton 1959; Ames 1966). A few

systems, including the schemes of McCullough and Ames, have been used successfully with upper-elementary pupils and high school students (Olson 1971; Quealy 1969). According to one analysis by Emans (1966), a substantial number of context aids used in word recognition fell into one of three major categories: meaning-bearing clues, language-bearing clues and organization clues.

Proposals for the use of structured overviews and reading or study guides (based on three levels of comprehension) have stemmed from recent research by Herber and his colleagues at Syracuse University (Herber and Sanders 1969). A structured overview is a diagrammatic representation of the "basic vocabulary of a unit so as to show relationships among the concepts represented by those words" (Herber and Sanders 1969, p. 4). Estes, Mills, and Barron (1969) indicate that the purpose of the structured overview is similar to that of the "advance organizer" (Ausubel 1960), which provides a plan for interpreting the material to be read and relates it to concepts previously learned.

The reading/study guide is a strategy that may be used with the structured overview in helping establish a sense of purpose in reading. Guides are designed to offer both structure and direction within a lesson on three levels of comprehension. These levels, identified in Herber's model (1970, pp. 62-63), are fully described in chapter 4.

The study guide—based on the preceding concept of comprehension—is viewed as particularly useful in adapting texts and other materials to the varying levels of students' reading ability, a problem which plagues most social studies teachers. Still, it should not be assumed that students will indefinitely read at the literal level, for the guide is designed to aid in the simultaneous improvement of reading skills and content learning (Herber 1970, p. 131). In addition, Earle (1969, pp. 78-79) explains that the study guide should provide for "guided reactions," that is, discussion of parts of the guide within small groups in order to resolve differences in responses. This "active reflection on the content," maintains Earle, "very often results in lively elaboration, purposeful questioning, and reading for verification" (p. 79).

An analysis of the research dealing with the strategies of structured overviews of three-level reading/study guides does not provide unqualified support for any one strategy or for any particular combination of strategies (Hash 1974a). Nevertheless, the results, in general, are encouraging and justify further elaboration and testing in practical classroom situations.

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Appendix B

Assessing Readability

The Fry Graph for Estimating Readability*

The technique described here may be used for determining the approximate grade level of a text. This is an approximation and does not measure conceptual difficulty. To use the Fry Graph, follow these steps:

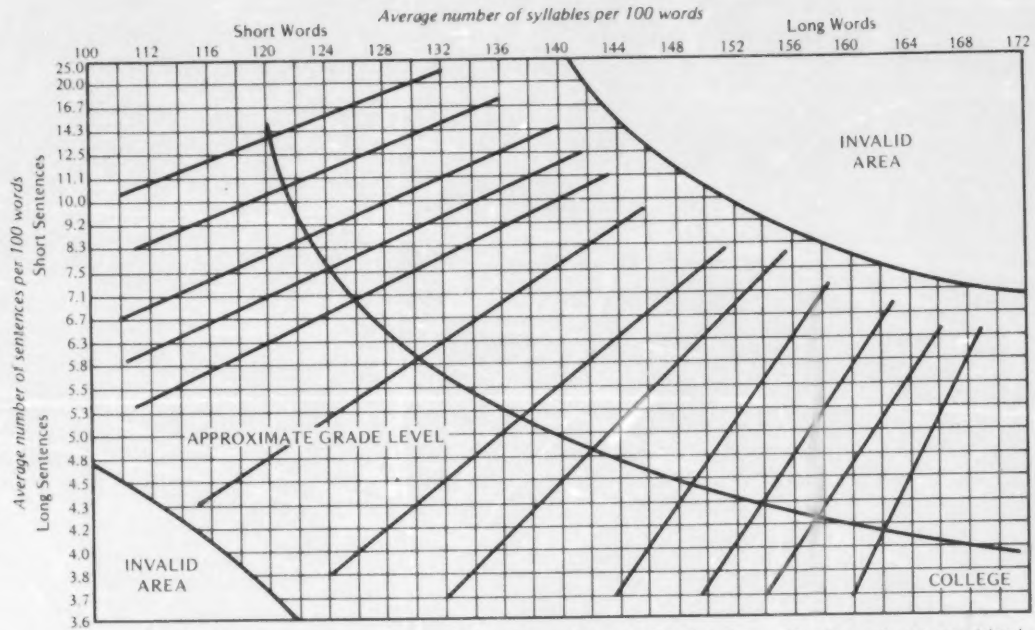
1. Select three 100-word passages from the beginning, middle, and end of the text. Disregard all proper nouns.
2. Count the total number of sentences in each passage, estimating to the nearest tenth of a sentence. Average these three numbers.
3. Count the total number of syllables in each sample. Assign a syllable for each vowel sound; for instance, cat (1), bluebird (2), and geography (4). Note that word size is not directly tied to the number of syllables; for instance, daily (2) and dance (1). Average the total number of syllables for the three samples.
4. Plot, on the graph (see Figure 4), the average number of sentences per 100 words and the average number of syllables per 100 words. Most plot points fall near the heavy curved line. Perpendicular lines mark off approximate grade-level areas.

For example:

	Sentences per 100 words	*Syllables per 100 words*
Sample 1	7.1	120
Sample 2	8.0	149
Sample 3	7.5	120
Divide total by 3	3/24.6	3/391
Average	8.2	130

*See Fry, Edward, "A Readability Formula That Saves Time," *Journal of Reading* 11 (April 1968): 513-516, 575-78.

Figure 4
Graph for Estimating Readability


Average number of syllables per 100 words
Short Words
Long Words
100 112 116 120 124 128 132 136 140 144 148 152 156 160 164 168 172
Average number of sentences per 100 words
Short Sentences
Long Sentences
25.0 20.0 16.7 14.3 12.5 11.1 10.0 9.2 8.3 7.5 7.1 6.7 6.3 5.8 5.5 5.3 5.0 4.8 4.5 4.3 4.2 4.0 3.8 3.7 3.6
INVALID AREA
APPROXIMATE GRADE LEVEL
INVALID AREA
COLLEGE

The Readability Graph conceived by Edward Fry, Rutgers University Reading Center, New Jersey, is not copyrighted. Anyone may reproduce it in any quantity without permission from the author and editor. The Readability Graph can be found in *Reading Instruction for Classroom and Clinic*, Edward Fry, Author, McGraw-Hill Book Company, p. 232, 1972.

Plotting these averages on the graph reveals that the index falls within the fifth-grade area. Thus, the text is about fifth-grade difficulty level. When great variability is encountered, either in the sentence length or in the syllable count for the three selections, randomly select several more passages and average them prior to plotting the graph.

Group Informal Reading Inventory*

The purpose of the Group Informal Reading Inventory is to determine the ability of a class to read a social studies text. It is particularly helpful to administer the inventory at the beginning of a semester, since valuable information can be obtained about students' patterns of strengths and weaknesses. The teacher can then plan for the introduction of skill-building activities or supplementary materials in order to help pupils develop needed skills and make the most effective use of the text.

In administering the inventory, explain the purpose of the exercise and the reading skills it is designed to appraise. It is recommended that grades not be assigned to students, at least on the basis of an initial administration of this inventory.

To measure the ability of students to use the eight selected skills in reading the text, prepare four questions for each skill category, as suggested in the following example:

Skill	Sample Questions
1. Knowledge and use of book parts	Turn to the table of contents. On what page does the chapter "Comparing Political Behavior" begin? What is the title of the unit of which it is a part?
2. Reference skills	What library aid will tell you the call number of the book, *All the President's Men*?
3. Interpretation of graphic, aids—maps, charts, cartoons, pictures	Turn to page 19 and study the chart. What level of socioeconomic status has the lowest percentage of "very active" political citizens: (a) high, (b) low, (c) lower middle.

*While David Shepherd should be credited with the general concept of the Group Informal Reading Inventory, the authors of this book have reorganized the framework, adding components to make it more comprehensive. See Shepherd, David, *Comprehensive High School Reading Methods*. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1973, pp. 11-16.

4. Listening comprehension	Have the students close their texts and listen to you read two paragraphs. Then ask two short-answer questions directed toward a literal level and two which involve some reasoning (for instance, why did certain events occur?).

In the steps that follow, have the students read four or five pages silently, record the time required for them to read the passage, then close their texts to complete the remainder of the inventory.

5. Vocabulary	Define *logrolling*. What does *alienation* mean as used here: A person who joins a hippie clan may be expression feelings of isolation from other groups with whom he or she once associated. He or she probably has feelings of *alienation*. (This question involves use of context aids.)
6. Recognizing main ideas	Have students open their books to a particular page: What is the main idea of the first paragraph on this page?
7. Noting details (explicit information)	How have the Senate and House grown in size?
8. Interpretive comprehension (that beyond what is explicitly stated)	The author explains the delays that occur in a two-house (bicameral) legislature. In that case, why did the framers of the *Constitution* want one?
9. Reading speed	Determine the number of words in the selection and have the student compute his or her reading speed in words per minute. (Example: number of words in selection—4,000; time required to read—twenty minutes; equals 200 words per minute.)

This survey instrument is easy to score. Simply arrange for students to correct their own exercises in class and provide time for discussion about the questions and the various responses. A student is considered deficient in a particular skill area if he or she misses more than one question.

For interpreting the data derived from this inventory, it may be helpful to prepare a class profile such as that shown in Figure 5. An "X" indicates a skill area in which deficiencies have been noted.

One may pinpoint individual difficulties by reading the table horizontally. Reading it vertically throws some light on the class pattern. The following

Figure 5
Profile: Social Studies Group Reading Survey

Class: Government *Date:* 9/7/76
Grade: 12
Text: Government for Americans, by John Doe
Average Readability Level of Text: 12 *Formula Used:* SMOG
Range of Readability Levels: 7-14

Student Name	*Skill Area*								
	Listening Comprehension	Book Parts	Graphic Aids	Reference Skills	Vocabulary	Details	Interpretative Comprehension	Main Ideas	Rate
Simone							X	X	
Tim		X		X	X	X	X	X	X
Joe									X
Ricky							X	X	
Cathy		X		X					
Mary	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X
John									
Cynthia		X		X					X

*Adapted from David L. Shepherd, *Comprehensive High School Reading Methods.* Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1973, pp. 24-25.

observations about this group of students seem warranted: Reading rate appears to be a problem for several and, in view of the wide range of reading levels of the text, it merits attention. Several students may have the capacity to read effectively, but Simone's and Ricky's understanding appears to be superficial, suggesting a need for emphasis on critical reading activities for them. At least two students, Tim and Mary, may have serious reading disabilities; although Tim's listening skill suggests that he has potential, an individual follow-up assessment is indicated. In summary, it seems that the text is suitable for most students, provided that the teacher makes certain adaptations, such as stressing interpretive reading, providing some training in use of reference skills, improving the rate of reading, and introducing supplementary activities and materials at a lower readability level for problem readers.

Appendix C

Personal Classroom Journals

Modified Language Experience Activity

This discussion of the use of personal classroom journals in the social studies is based on the rationale and practice of Jesse H. Lott.* Varied writing formats may be used to guide students in analyzing and recording their observations and concerns. Some are outlined below.

Subject: *Date:* _____

Major Objective:

Skill(s) Used:

Class Activity:

Questions or Comments:

Assignment:

*Excerpted with permission by Jesse Lott and the National Council for the Social Studies from "Classroom Journals," *Social Education* 42 (1978): 16-17. (See also the discussion of Lott's work in chapter 3.)

Issue or Topic: *Date:* _____

Reaction:

Evaluation of Yourself:

Questions:

or

I learn . . . (statements)

What? (What's going on here?): *Date:* _____

So What? (What sense do I make of what's happening?):

For What? (What evaluation do I make of what is happening? What does it mean to me? To others?):

Now What? (What can I do to make happen what I want to happen here? What do I need? etc.):

Issue or Topic: *Date:* _____

Reaction: (Values in agreement or conflict)

Evaluation of Yourself & Others:

Questions:

What the students' key vocabulary and dialogue with their teachers may mean is illustrated in the following two excerpts, reproduced from students' journals. The first is written by a student troubled with reading (and spelling) problems: he probes something he found meaningful in a class discussion of the concept of friendship. The second is authored by a more academically competent student, seeking to clarify her concepts of heresy, conformity, and constructive rebellion.

Excerpt 1

And Freinds,
Is freinds how many people
you know
Is freinds people who like
you
Or freinds people who you
use or use you
Do freinds help you or do
they turn away.
Is freind people you like the
most and the rest just there.
I have only a few freinds they
are people that I can horse
aroud with on weekends and
they depend a little on me.
Leon has over 2,000 students
and I know about 18 students
out of the rest.

Excerpt 2

Subject: (Middle Ages), heresy, conformity
Major Objective: discuss St. Francis in order
to gain insight on heresy and conformity
and the Middle Ages
Skills Used: reading, discussing
Class Activity: constructive rebellion
boycott for lower prices (Boston Tea Party)
Susan B. Anthony (sufferage)—heretic to men
Martin Luther King
Muhatma Ghandi
American Revolutionists—England
innovator-critic: All these people(s) accomplished things
and were right in many others eyes.
'nnovator—gives new idea

Critic—who criticizes and doesn't do anything
Heretic—both
Passive critic-to-radical revolutionary
Lenny Bruce—heretic, comic, innovator
Abbey Hoffman—believed society needed to changed completely. He had radical views.
There is a difference between a heretic accomplishing anything.
Question and Comment: I think some people don't even have a cause for what they are doing.

Appendix D

Discovery Episode

Presented below is an example of a discovery episode which has been designed for use in the upper elementary and junior high school grades. (The readability of the episode is at the fourth-grade level according to the Fry graph.)

Discovery Episode: The School

The following is a story told by a woman about her school days in an American town in the early 1800s (Lockwood 1905; pp. 245-46):

> We had bread only once a week—on Saturdays. I thought if I ever got out I would kill myself eating sugar and cake. We marched like soldiers after breakfast to Community House No. 2. I remember that there were blackboards covering one side of the room. We also had wires with balls on them. These helped us to learn to count. We would also sing songs to help learn lessons in different subjects. At dinner we usually had soup; at supper we had mush and milk.
>
> We went to bed at sundown in little bunks. They hung in rows by rope from the ceiling. Sometimes one of the children at the end of the row would swing back her cradle. When it bumped into the next bunk, it would make the whole row bang together. This was a lot of fun for us but it made the teachers unhappy.
>
> At regular times we used to be marched to the community apothecary shop (drug store). There each boy and girl was given a dose of something that tasted like sulphur. Children in the boarding school were not allowed to see their parents very often. I saw my father and mother twice in two years. We had a little song we used to sing:
>
> Number 2 pigs locked up in a pen,
> When they get out, it's now and then;
> When they get out, they sneak about,
> For fear old Neef will find them out.

Some questions which might be raised about this account include:

1. How did the children feel about their school? Who could "old Neef" have been?
2. Do you think these conditions were typical of schools in America in the early 1800s? (Why or why not?)
3. Do you find any clues to suggest that there was anything different about this town?
4. What could be the purpose of this school?

Notes on the Episode

This account is based on memories of Mrs. Sara Cox Thrall, who attended a school in the 1820s in New Harmony, Indiana, the site of a unique utopian socialist experiment carried out by a Scottish philanthropist, Robert Owen, and others concerned with reformation of the existing social order. Owen and his associates believed in the educational principles of Pestalozzi and tried to implement them in their schools in New Harmony. Joseph Neef was the schoolmaster they employed.

This episode may be used to introduce the concept of socialism in United States history and to describe early efforts at social reform. New Harmony also aroused the interest of many influential reformers of the period, including advocates of women's rights, abolitionists, and so on. Many visited the town, and some attempted to settle for a time. The literature on New Harmony is extensive, including not only historical analyses but novels (see the references following this Appendix). Slides of the reconstructed community may also be used to provide additional clues.

References

Bestor, Arthur E. *Backwoods Utopias: The Sectarian and Owenite Phases of Communitarian Socialism in America.* Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1950.

Knoedler, Christiana. *The Harmony Society: A Nineteenth Century American Utopia.* New York: Vantage Press, 1954.

Lockwood, George G. *The New Harmony Movement.* New York: D. Appleton Co., 1905.

Wilson, William E. *The Angel and the Serpent: The Story of New Harmony.* Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1964.

Appendix E

Doublespeak Model

Application of the Rank Doublespeak Schema to the Social Studies

As noted in chapter 4, Hugh Rank, working under the auspices of the National Council of Teachers of English, has devised a promising procedure for analyzing efforts at public persuasion to replace the well-entrenched, conventional classification of propaganda techniques. According to Rank, people choose to manipulate communication (1) to *intensify* their own "good," (2) to *intensify* others' "bad," (3) to *downplay* others' "good," and (4) to *downplay* others' "bad."

An important assumption made by the author is that the intensification and downplaying of communication is a natural activity engaged in by "all people, in all eras, in all countries." The application of the four-part pattern or schema to a given communication, accordingly, does not imply any moral or ethical judgment. These judgments must be made in terms of the situation or context (Rank 1974, pp. 218-22). The purpose is to teach children how to recognize their own efforts at language manipulation as well as those efforts of other powerful agencies of society. Intensification is usually accomplished through the basic techniques of repetition, association, and composition, while downplaying occurs through omission, diversion, and confusion.

Rank (1976) provides a detailed explanation of techniques and other aspects of the model, including an illustration of the application of this pattern to the Watergate episode. The pattern is illustrated in analyzing charges against MACOS (*Man: A Course of Study*). The MACOS problem came to public attention in 1975 as the subject of much debate in the press, in the halls of Congress, and in the National Science Foundation (NSF). It also affected the many schools and teachers using this social studies program, designed for the upper elementary grades by Jerome Bruner and others at the Educational Development Center. The analysis is based on proceedings reported in *The Congressional Record*, and, therefore, can be used by classroom teachers without hazard from the new (and confusing) copyright law. The analysis focuses on the charges against MACOS by representatives Conlan, Annunzio, and Sullivan, the chief critics in Congress of MACOS. (For a more detailed consideration of various views, the reader is directed to "Pro and Con Forum: The MACOS Controversy," *Social Education* 39 (October 1975): 388-96.)

Doublespeak Analysis: MACOS Debate

Intensify Own "Good":
Annunzio stresses he is a former teacher, parent and grandparent; associates himself with "the moral standards of the Judeo-Christian Culture "which have made this Nation so great." Conlan cites support from columnist Kilpatrick and stresses he is responding to the complaints of many of his constituents, believes in decision making at local school level.

Techniques: Association with positive aspects of culture.

Intensify Others' "Bad":
MACOS includes a quote from the French Marxist, Levi-Strauss. Repetition of the term "MACOS" in association with references (concerning traditional Eskimo culture) to wife swapping, trial marriage, killing of female babies and old people, adultery, and so on. Aim of NSF, sponsor of MACOS, is to move toward a national curriculum. NSF gave millions of taxpayers' money to the developers of MACOS. Psychologists striving to alienate children from parental values.
Techniques: Repetition and association with negative and unpopular symbols and expressions.

Downplay Own "Bad":
Denial of intent to impose government censorship—peoples' representatives have right to judge use of public funds (Annunzio). Analogy drawn by Sullivan between nourishing the bodies of children through food stamps and school lunches and the obligation to see that "minds are properly nourished" and not exposed to such programs as MACOS.
Techniques: Omissions (euphemisms, "nourishing minds," not censorship). Confusion ("peoples' elected representatives"). Judgment of how public funds are to be spent.

Downplay Others' "Good":
NSF director had not reviewed MACOS materials when first questioned. MACOS presents "a new world society envisioned by elite group of scholars." Publishers rejected NSF-sponsored MACOS materials.

Techniques: Omissions regarding qualifications of developers; questioning their competence, also confusion concerning publishers' attitudes toward MACOS.

References

The Congressional Record 9 April 1975, pp. 2585-89.

"Pro and Con Forum: The MACOS Controversy." *Social Education* 39 (October 1975): 388-96.

Rank, Hugh. "The Teacher Heal Thyself Myth." In *Language and Public Policy*, edited by Hugh Rank, pp. 215-34. Urbana, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1974.

Rank, Hugh. "Teaching about Public Persuasion: Rationale and Schema." In *Teaching about Doublespeak*, edited by Daniel Dieterich, pp. 3-19. Urbana, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1976. [ED 119 210]

Annotated Bibliography

Many of the items listed in this annotated bibliography were located through a computer search of the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) data base. Most of those provided with an ERIC Document (ED) number are available from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS), P. O. Box 190, Arlington, Virginia 22210. EDRS reproduces documents in two ways: on microfiche (MF) and in "hard copy" (HC), a photographic reproduction at original size. All orders must include payment, including postage, and must refer to the ED number given. Complete ordering information is provided in the monthly issues of *Resources in Education*, the index of documents processed into the ERIC system.

Readers may also wish to review an abstract of those items with ED numbers by consulting *Resources in Education*. Many university and college libraries and school district resource centers subscribe to the index and have microfiche collections of the ERIC data base.

Publishers' addresses and price information are given for those references not available from EDRS; it is advisable to check with the particular publisher in question before placing an order, as prices are subject to change.

Assessment Instruments (Motivational Aspects of Reading)

Miller, Wilma H. *Reading Diagnosis Kit.* New York: Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1974. (ED 106 774; not available from EDRS. Available from: Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 521 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y. 10017–$14.95 paper.)

Pages 233-75 of this kit contain explanations and examples (which may be reproduced for classroom use) of interest inventories, incomplete sentences tests, and other projective devices for primary grades through high school.

Phillips, Richard C. *Teaching for Thinking in High School Social Studies.* Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1974. (Available from: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Jacob Way, Reading, Mass. 01867 – $12.75.)

This chapter on reading skills (pp. 272-95) shows how to use an interest inventory to adapt instruction to individual differences in learning secondary school social studies.

Strickler, Darryl, and Eller, William. "Reading: Attitudes and Interests." In *Reading: Foundations and Instructional Strategies*, edited by Pose M. Lamb and Richard D. Arnold, Belmont, Cal.: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1976. (Available from: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 10 Davis Drive, Belmont, Cal. 94002–$11.95.)

Pages 449-90 contain a comprehensive analysis, primarily oriented to the elementary school, of the nature and effects of attitudes and interests on the reading process.

Classroom Management and Organization

Burmeister, Lou E. *Reading Strategies for Secondary School Teachers.* Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1974. (Available from: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Jacob Way, Reading, Mass. 01867–$11.95.)

Pages 87-97 present guidelines for implementing flexible grouping procedures in content-area classes to facilitate development of reading skills.

Reading Effectiveness Program: Elementary School Guide. Indianapolis, Ind.: Indiana Department of Public Instruction, Division of Reading Effectiveness, 1974. (ED 119 142; EDRS price: MF–$0.83; HC–$11.37 plus postage, 214 pp.)

This publication provides a comprehensive, readable account of how the elementary classroom teacher may develop learning centers, group pupils effectively, and implement other instructional strategies.

Shepherd, David L. *Comprehensive High School Reading Methods.* Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1973. (ED 076 951; not available from EDRS. Available from: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, Columbus, Ohio 43216–$9.95 cloth.)

Pages 148-63 contain detailed directions on how to individualize instruction in content areas and adapt reading instruction to various types of learning problems.

Phonic Skills in Reading Social Studies Materials

Mazurkiewicz, A. J. *Teaching About Phonics.* New York: St. Martin's Press, Inc., 1976. (ED 122 266; not available from EDRS. Available from: St Martin's Press, Inc., 175 Fifth Avenue, New York, N. Y. 10010–$4.95 paper.)

This book gives a detailed account of symbol-to-sound correspondences (generalizations concerning vowels and consonants) and suggests instructional strategies.

McFeely, D. C. "Syllabication Usefulness in a Basal and Social Studies Vocabulary." *The Reading Teacher* 27 (May 1974): 809-14.

This article summarizes research that resulted in the identification of four reliable and consistent generalizations, or rules for syllabication, for social studies vocabulary items on the elementary level.

Miller, Wilma H. *Reading Correction Kit.* New York: Center for Applied Research in Education, 1975. (ED 114 794; not available from EDRS. Available from: Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 521 Fifth Avenue, New York, N. Y. 10017—$14.95 paper.)

Section 3 (pp. 41-66) sets forth practical exercises and worksheets to assist the nonspecialist in correcting what the author calls "phonetic analysis skills" from the first grade through the secondary level.

Readability Formulas

Burmeister, Lou E. *Reading Strategies for Secondary School Teachers.* Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1974. (Available from: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Jacob Way, Reading, Mass. 01867—$11.95.)

Burmeister provides specific directions for and examples of the use of the Flesch reading ease formula (suitable for grades 5-14), explains the concept of readability, and includes a "computation ease chart" to simplify the use of the Dale-Chall readability formula. (See especially pages 25-35 and 293-94.)

Klare, George R. "Assessing Readability." *Reading Research Quarterly* 10 (1974-75): 62-102.

This article contains a scholarly explanation and analysis of most of the widely used readability formulas and indicates their uses and limitations.

Reading in Social Studies

Aukerman, Robert C. *Reading in the Secondary School Classroom.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1972. (ED 079 686; not available from EDRS. Available from: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1221 Avenue of the Americas, New York, N. Y. 10020—$9.95.)

Pages 99-135 present ideas concerning the organization of an approach to reading social studies textbooks. Examples of how to make reading assignments in the social studies are given. Procedures for assessing the reading ability of students and the reading level of textbooks are described. Ideas for locating information and enrichment materials for the social studies are offered and procedures for teaching critical reading in the social studies are explained.

Clymer, Theodore. *Read Better—Learn More.* Lexington, Mass.: Ginn and Company, 1972. (Available from: Ginn and Company, P. O. Box 2649, Columbus, Ohio 43216—$2.25 for each of three student books; $2.75 for each of three teachers' editions.)

The authors of these classroom materials present skill development exercises in major content areas including social studies. Emphasis is primarily on the secondary level. The books discuss such topics as judging validity and using a bibliography.

Duffy, Gerald G., ed. *Reading in the Middle School. Perspectives in Reading,* no. 18. Newark, Del.: International Reading Association, 1975. (ED 098 556; EDRS price: MF—$0.83; HC—$11.37 plus postage, 217 pp. Also available from the International Reading Association, 800 Barksdale Road, Newark, Del. 19711—Order No. 118, $6.50 nonmembers, $4.50 members.)

Pages 140-52 discuss the role of the social studies teacher in reading, factors affecting comprehension (for example, decoding skill, background, and interest), teaching thinking skills, and analyzing social studies materials.

Foreign News and World Views: Interpreting the Newspaper in the Classroom. New Dimensions, col. 1, no. 2. New York: Foreign Policy Association, 1968. (Available from: Foreign Policy Association, 345 E. 46th Street, New York, N.Y. 10017—$1.00 per copy; quantity discounts available.)

While somewhat dated, this pamphlet still contains an interesting and provocative case study of how three newspapers handled coverage of a Vietnam peace demonstration in 1965.

Hafner, Lawrence E. *Developmental Reading in Middle and Secondary Schools: Foundations, Strategies, and Skills for Teaching.* New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, Inc., 1977. (Available from: Macmillan Publishing Company, Inc., 855 Third Avenue, New York, N. Y. 10022—$14.95 cloth.)

Pages 207-38 contain a discussion of vocabulary and comprehension problems in the social studies and an explanation of practical procedures for dealing with these problems.

Herber, Harold. *GO—Reading in Content Areas.* New York: Scholastic Book Services, 1973 (Available from: Scholastic Book Services, 904 Sylvan Avenue, Englewood Cliffs, N. J. 07632—for each of five levels: skills text $2.50; ditto masters $12.50; teaching guide $5.00.)

The GO materials consist of five texts, teaching guides, and ditto masters providing "reinforcement" exercises for each level, grades four through eight. Readability levels range from grades two to seven and a half. One section emphasizes materials and skills assumed to be necessary for mastering social studies content (for example, determining sequence, noting details.)

Insights About America. Carson, Cal.: Educational Insights, Inc., 1977. (Available from: Educational Insights, Inc., 20435 South Tillman Avenue, Carson, Cal. 90746.)

Includes a set of cartoon booklets focusing on critical periods in United States history. A set of spirit masters and a teacher's guide accompany this set, which is particularly useful in working with students with marginal reading skills.

Ranson, Grayce A. *Reading, Researching, and Reporting in Social Studies: Americana.* Santa Monica, Cal.: BFA Educational Media, 1974. (Available from: BFA Educational Media, 2211 Michigan Avenue, Santa Monica, Cal. 90406—$123.00 with cassettes; $111.00 with records.)

This multimedia package of filmstrips, cassettes, activity cards, skill books, and teacher's guide focuses on developing various language arts skills in upper-elementary pupils within the framework of early American history. A number of interesting games and activities are designed to develop skills in concept formation, following directions, using references, and so forth.

A Reading Program for the 70s: Social Studies and Reading. Atlanta: Georgia State Department of Education, Division of Curriculum Development, 1975. (ED 105 408; EDRS price: MF—$0.83; HC—$2.06 plus postage—43 pp.)

This plan can help social studies teachers develop the competencies they will need to teach students to read social studies materials in kindergarten through grade twelve. A sample unit and suggested evaluation techniques illustrate the use of many materials at varied reading levels. Classroom organizational patterns that will help the teacher to individualize instruction are suggested. Several techniques useful for determining student reading levels and readability levels of social studies materials are presented.

Restructuring and Preparing Materials at Specified Readability Levels

Berryman, Charles. *Improving Reading Skills.* Atlanta, Georgia: *Atlanta Journal-Constitution*, 1973. (Available from: *Atlanta Journal-Constitution*, Atlanta, Georgia.)

This useful publication contains fifty modules designed to show teachers how to apply one or more of eighteen reading skills to studying newspapers, analyzing cartoons, evaluating advertising, and so forth.

Forgan, H. W., and Mangrum, C. T. *Teaching Content Area Reading Skills: A Modular Preservice and Inservice Program.* Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1976. (Available from: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1300 Alum Creek Drive, Columbus, Ohio 43216—$10.95 paper.)

Forgan and Mangrum present (on pages 45-65) a module demonstrating how to use the Fry graph to rewrite or prepare materials at a designated readability level.

Peters, Charles W. "The Effect of Systematic Restructuring of Material upon the Comprehension Process." *Reading Research Quarterly* 11 (1975-1976): 87-111.

Peters demonstrates the efficacy of restructuring social studies materials in accordance with the Frayer concept-attainment model.

Study Skills

Earle, Richard A. "Developing and Using Study Guides." In *Research in Reading in Content Areas: First Year Report*, edited by Harold Herber and Peter Sanders, pp. 70-91. Syracuse: Syracuse University, New York Reading and Language Arts Center, 1969. (ED 037 305; EDRS price: MF–$0.83; HC–$6.01 plus postage, 113 pp.)

The author provides directions for developing study guides on three levels of comprehension. Examples of guides in social studies at the secondary level are included.

Herber, Harold L. *Teaching Reading in Content Areas.* Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1969. (Available from: Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, N. J. 07632–$10.95.)

Pages 231-64 present a number of reading and reasoning guides appropriate for several grade levels. Some emphasize organizational patterns and focus on levels of comprehension.

Robinson, H. Alan. *Teaching Reading and Study Strategies.* Boston, Mass.: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1975. (ED 114 789; not available from EDRS. Available from: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 470 Atlantic Avenue, Boston, Mass. 02210–$11.50 cloth.)

On pages 135-58, Robinson identifies seven major patterns of writing in social studies materials (for example, topic development, enumeration, sequence) and provides strategies for studying these patterns and deriving meaning from materials.

Ruddell, Robert B. *Reading-Language Instruction: Innovative Practices.* Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1974. (ED 034 490; not available from EDRS. Available from: Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, N. J. 07632–$10.95.)

Ruddell identifies the research and study skills essential in elementary social studies (locational and interpretive skills) and shows how they can be developed. Emphasis is also placed on improvement of reading rate through such processes as skimming and scanning. (See especially pages 409-54.)

Thomas, Ellen, and Robinson, H. Alan. *Improving Reading in Every Class.* abridged ed. Boston, Mass.: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1972. (ED 075 769; not available from EDRS. Available from: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 470 Atlantic Avenue, Boston, Mass. 02210–$14.95 cloth; $5.95 paper.)

The authors propose a variation on the SQ3R study technique, which they term PQ4R (Preview, Question, Read, Reflect, Recite, and Review). This technique, according to Thomas and Robinson, is based on extensive experimentation. Also included are detailed exercises on how to increase reading rate and employ skimming and scanning procedures. (See especially pages 69-104 and 135-65.)

West, Gail B. *Teaching Reading Skills and Content Areas: A Practical Guide to the Construction of Student Exercises.* Orlando, Fla.: Sandpiper Press, 1974. (ED 092 914; not available from EDRS. Available from: Sandpiper Press, Inc., P. O. Box 19225, Orlando, Fla. 32814—$4.95 paper.)

This handbook presents a number of procedures to help the content-area teacher work with students in reading. Included are tests for assessing student reading ability; readability formulas for determining grade level of materials; exercises for using various parts of books; procedures for selecting textbooks; exercises for interpreting graphics; informal procedures for assessing a student's ability to read; procedures for extending vocabulary; procedures for improving comprehension and for developing different reading rates; and directions for preparation of study guides.

END